THE

MONTHLY REVIEW,

For MAY, 1802.

Art. I. *The History of the Rebellion in the Year* 1745. By John Home, Esq. 4to. pp. 420. 1l. 1s. Boards. Cadell jun. and Davies. 1802.

IT is a circumstance somewhat remarkable, that more than half a century has elapsed without producing any regular history of a rebellion, which had so great an object in view as the restoration of the family of Stuart to the throne of England, and which at the time caused a general panic through both England and Scotland. When we recollect, indeed, that the metropolis of one country was seized by the rebels, that the capital of the other felt a sensible alarm on their subsequent and near approach, and that in two engagements the undisciplined troops of the Pretender gained advantages over the regular regiments of the King, we cannot but express some surprize on being now, for the first time, called to notice a systematic narrative of these ill-advised and ill-conducted measures.

Little doubt can be entertained respecting the authenticity of this history, since the author can say, with Æneas, in describing these transactions,

——" *Quæque ipse miserrima vidi,*
Et quorum pars —— fui."

' In those days, (he observes,) I carried arms, (though not a military man by profession,) and, serving with the king's troops, underwent part of their adverse fortune; for I was taken prisoner at the battle of Falkirk, and during my captivity was an eye-witness of some memorable events, an account of which I committed to writing, whilst the facts were recent and fresh in my memory; and have taken no small pains, for many years, to procure authentic information of what I did not see, visiting every place which was the scene of any remarkable occurrence, and examining the accounts which I had collected of each battle, upon the field where it was fought, accompanied and assisted by persons who had been present upon every occasion, and sometimes principally concerned.

'Proceeding in this manner, I have finished a course of inquiry, which has enabled me to deduce, from its orgin to its final extinction, the history of the rebellion.'

Mr. Home has also been assisted with documents from official depositories.—In the principles by which the author is actuated, we may feel a similar confidence; for, in speaking of the revolution, he says:

'That memorable event, which took place in England and Scotland at the same time, forms a new epoch in the constitution of both nations: for the great precedent of deposing one King, and soon after transferring the crown to another family, the nearest Protestant heir, but more remote than several Roman Catholic families, gave such an ascendant to popular principles, as puts the nature of the constitution beyond all controversy.

'From the accession of James I. to the Revolution, (one short interval excepted), there had been a continued struggle between the King and the Parliament; during which, foreign affairs were either altogether neglected, or treated in such a manner as greatly lessened that weight which Britain ought to have in the scale of Europe: but the Revolution put a period to the hereditary succession of the Stuart line; and the settlement of the crown upon the Prince and Princess of Orange was accompanied with a Declaration of Rights, where all the points disputed between the King and the Parliament were finally determined, and the powers of the royal prerogative were more narrowly circumscribed, and more accurately defined, than they had been in any former period of the Government.

'To the Revolution it is owing, that the people of this island have ever since enjoyed the most perfect system of liberty that ever was known amongst mankind. To the Revolution it is owing, that at this moment, in the year 1801, Great Britain stands the bulwark of Europe; whilst her fleets and armies, in regions the most remote, defend the cause of Government and Order against Anarchy and Confusion.'

With much judgment, Mr. Home commences his work with an account of the Highlanders, states the extent and limits of their country, and gives an interesting (though rather too concise) view of their singular manners. Their attachment to the house of Stuart, and their readiness to join in every attempt to restore that family to the throne of its ancestors, he attributes to their spirit of clanship; they were ignorant and careless of the disputes, both political and religious, which occasioned the civil war; and they considered Charles the First only in the light of an injured chief.—We refer the reader to our 34th vol. N. S. p. 182. for a just and beautiful description of this peculiar people, as drawn by the masterly pencil of Mr. Belsham; and we shall proceed to extract the account of a sagacious proposal, which was made previously to the year 1745 by

by the President of the Court of Session, in order to reconcile them to the interests of government:

'Of the danger that was likely to arise from the Highlanders, in case of a foreign war, government was warned by Duncan Forbes of Culloden, president of the court of session; who, at the same time, suggested a measure to prevent rebellion and insurrection in the Highlands, by engaging the Highlanders in the service of government. As there will be frequent occasion to mention this gentleman, who, in the course of the rebellion, contributed so much to frustrate the designs of Charles, it seems proper to mention some circumstances, which are now known only to the few people still alive, who remember him.

'Duncan Forbes, born a younger brother, and bred to the law, had passed through the different offices of that profession, which usually lead to the chair, universally esteemed, and thought still worthy of a higher office than the one he held. When called to preside in the supreme court of justice in Scotland, he fully answered the expectations of his countrymen: his manners gave a lustre to the dignity of his station; and no president of the court of session was ever more respected and beloved. He was a Whig upon principle; that is, he thought the government established at the Revolution was the best form of government for the inhabitants of Britain. In the end of autumn, in the year 1738, he came to Lord Milton's house at Brunstane, one morning before breakfast. Lord Milton was surprised to see him at so early an hour, and asked what was the matter? A matter, replied the president, which I hope you will think of some importance. You know very well that I am, like you, a Whig; but I am also the neighbour and friend of the Highlanders; and intimately acquainted with most of their chiefs. For some time, I have been revolving in my mind different schemes for reconciling the Highlanders to government; now I think the time is come to bring forward a scheme, which, in my opinion, will certainly have that effect.

'A war with Spain seems near at hand, which, it is probable, will soon be followed by a war with France; and there will be occasion for more troops than the present standing army: in that event, I propose that government should raise four or five regiments of Highlanders, appointing an English or Scottish officer of undoubted loyalty, to be colonel of each regiment; and naming the lieutenant-colonels, majors, captains, and subalterns, from this list in my hand, which comprehends all the chiefs and chieftains of the disaffected clans, who are the very persons whom France and Spain will call upon, in case of a war, to take arms for the Pretender. If government pre-engages the Highlanders in the manner I propose, they will not only serve well against the enemy abroad, but will be hostages for the good behaviour of their relations at home; and I am persuaded that it will be absolutely impossible to raise a rebellion in the Highlands. I have come *here* to shew you this plan, and to entreat, if you approve it, that you will recommend it to your friend

Lord Ilay *, who, I am told, is to be here to-day or to-morrow, in his way to London.

'I will, most certainly, (said Milton,) shew the plan to Lord Ilay; but I need not recommend it to him; for, if I am not much mistaken, it will recommend itself.

'Next day, the Earl of Ilay came to Brunstane: Lord Milton shewed him the president's plan, with which he was extremely pleased, and carrying it to London with him, presented it to Sir Robert Walpole, who read the preamble, and said, at once, that it was the most sensible plan he had ever seen, and was surprized that no body had thought of it before.

'He then ordered a cabinet council to be summoned, and laid the plan before them, expressing his approbation of it in the strongest terms, and recommending it as a measure which ought to be carried into execution immediately, in case of a war with Spain. Notwithstanding the minister's recommendation, every member of the council declared himself against the measure, assuring Sir Robert Walpole, that for his sake they could not possibly agree to it; that, if government should adopt the plan of the *Scots* judge, the patriots (for so the opposition was called) would exclaim that Sir Robert Walpole, who always designed to subvert the British constitution, was raising an army of Highlanders to join the standing army, and enslave the people of England. The plan was set aside †; and, next year, Britain declared war against Spain ‡.'

Hostilities against Spain having been accordingly proclaimed, some of the most zealous Jacobites, thinking that a rupture with France would necessarily ensue, entered into an association in the following year; engaging themselves to 'take arms and venture their lives and fortunes to restore the family of Stuart, provided that the king of France would send over a body of troops to their assistance.' As the rebellion, which broke out in Scotland in the year 1745, was only a fragment of the original design, Mr. Home has judged it expedient to narrate the previous transactions, with the circumstances which occasioned their failure, and brought Charles Edward Stuart, the Pretender's son, to the Highlands, in the year 1745, without troops, arms, or money. After a dangerous voyage, in which he with great difficulty escaped being captured by an English

'* Archibald Earl of Ilay (who, in the year 1743, succeeded his brother John Duke of Argyll) was the friend of Sir Robert Walpole; and, during the long administration of that minister, had the management of the king's affairs in Scotland committed to him: Lord Milton, justice clerk, was submininister to Lord Ilay.'

'† This account of the president's plan, and of the reason for which it had been rejected, was given to the author of this history by Lord Milton.'

'‡ Britain declared war against Spain on the 23d of October, in the year 1739.'

man

man of war, Charles landed on the island of Erisca, the largest of a cluster of small rocky islands which lie off South Uist.

'His attendants, giving out that he was a young Irish priest, conducted him to the house of the tacksman who rented all the small islands; of him they learned that Clanronald and his brother Boisdale were upon the Island of South Uist; that young Clanronald was at Moidart upon the main land. A messenger was immediately dispatched to Boisdale, who is said to have had great influence with his brother. Charles staid all night on the island Erisca, and, in the morning, returned to his ship. Boisdale came aboard soon after: Charles proposed that he should go with him to the main land, assist in engaging his nephew to take arms, and then go, as his ambassador, to Sir Alexander Macdonald and Macleod. To every one of these proposals Boisdale gave a flat negative, declaring that he would do his utmost to prevent his brother and his nephew from engaging in so desperate an enterprise; assuring Charles that it was needless to send anybody to Sky, for that he had seen Sir Alexander Macdonald and Macleod very lately, and was desired by them to acquaint him (if he should come to South Uist, in his way to the Highlands) that they were determined not to join him, unless he brought over with him a body of regular troops. Charles replied in the best manner he could; and ordering the ship to be unmoored, carried Boisdale (whose boat hung at the stern) several miles onward to the main land, pressing him to relent, and give a better answer. Boisdale was inexorable, and, getting into his boat, left Charles to pursue his course, which he did directly for the coast of Scotland; and coming to an anchor in the Bay of Lochnanuagh, between Moidart and Arisaig, sent a boat ashore with a letter to young Clanronald. In a very little time Clanronald, with his relation Kinloch Moidart, came aboard the Doutelle. Charles, almost reduced to despair in his interview with Boisdale, addressed the two Highlanders with great emotion, and summing up his arguments for taking arms, conjured them to assist their prince, their countryman, in his utmost need. Clanronald and his friend, though well inclined to the cause, positively refused; and told him (one after another) that to take arms without concert or support, was to pull down certain destruction on their own heads. Charles persisted, argued, and implored. During this conversation, the parties walked backwards and forwards upon the deck: a Highlander stood near them, armed at all points, as was then the fashion of his country: he was a younger brother of Kinloch Moidart, and had come off to the ship to inquire for news, not knowing who was aboard; when he gathered, from their discourse, that the stranger was the Prince of Wales: when he heard his chief and his brother refuse to take arms with their prince, his colour went and came, his eyes sparkled, he shifted his place, and grasped his sword. Charles observed his demeanour, and turning briskly towards him, called out, Will not you assist me? I will, I will, said Ranald; though no other man in the Highlands should draw a sword, I am ready to die for you.

Charles, with a profusion of thanks and acknowledgments, extolled his champion to the skies, saying, he only wished that all the Highlanders were like him. Without farther deliberation, the two Macdonalds declared that they also would join, and use their utmost endeavours to engage their countrymen to take arms. Immediately Charles with his company went ashore, and was conducted to Boradale, a farm which belonged to the estate of Clanronald. The persons who landed with Charles at Boradale on the 25th of July were, the Marquis of Tullibardine, (elder brother of James duke of Atholl,) who had been attainted in the year 1716; Sir Thomas Sheridan, who had been tutor to Charles; Sir John Macdonald, an officer in the Spanish service; Francis Strickland, an English gentleman; Kelly, a clergyman who had been sent to the Tower of London for his concern in the Bishop of Rochester's plot; Æneas Macdonald, a banker in Paris, who was Kinloch Moidart's brother; and Buchanan, the messenger sent to Rome by Cardinal De Tencin.'

From Boradale, Charles dispatched messengers to those chiefs from whom he expected assistance; and the first who arrived was Cameron of Locheil, who acted a very conspicuous part in all the subsequent adventures of the prince. The conversation which passed at their meeting is too important to be omitted:

'He was no sooner arrived at Boradale, than Charles and he retired by themselves. The conversation began on the part of Charles, with bitter complaints of the treatment he had received from the ministers of France, who had so long amused him with vain hopes, and deceived him with false promises; their coldness in his cause, he said, but ill agreed with the opinion he had of his own pretensions, and with that impatience to assert them, with which the promises of his father's brave and faithful subjects had inflamed his mind. Locheil acknowledged the engagements of the chiefs, but observed that they were no ways binding, as he had come over without the stipulated aid; and therefore as there was not the least prospect of success, he advised his Royal Highness to return to France, and to reserve himself and his faithful friends for a more favourable opportunity. Charles refused to follow Locheil's advice, affirming that a more favourable opportunity than the present would never come: that almost all the British troops were abroad, and kept at bay by Marshal Saxe, with a superior army: that in Scotland there were only a few new-raised regiments, that had never seen service, and could not stand before the Highlanders: that the very first advantage gained over the troops would encourage his father's friends at home to declare themselves: that his friends abroad would not fail to give their assistance: that he only wanted the Highlanders to begin the war.

'Locheil still resisted, entreating Charles to be more temperate, and consent to remain concealed where he was, till he (Locheil) and his other friends should meet together, and concert what was best to be done. Charles, whose mind was wound up to the utmost pitch

pitch of impatience, paid no regard to this proposal, but answered, that he was determined to put all to the hazard. In a few days (said he), with the few friends that I have, I will erect the royal standard, and proclaim to the people of Britain, that Charles Stuart is come over to claim the crown of his ancestors, to win it, or to perish in the attempt: Locheil, who, my father has often told me, was our firmest friend, may stay at home, and learn from the newspapers the fate of his prince. No, said Locheil, I'll share the fate of my prince; and so shall every man over whom nature or fortune hath given me any power. Such was the singular conversation, on the result of which depended peace or war. For it is a point agreed * among the Highlanders, that if Locheil had persisted in his refusal to take arms, the other chiefs would not have joined the standard without him, and the spark of rebellion must have instantly expired.'

We pass over the intermediate events, and hasten to the arrival of Charles at Holyrood house, where he is thus described by the author:

'By-and-by † Charles came down to the Duke's Walk, accompanied by the Highland Chiefs, and other commanders of his army.

'The Park was full of people, (amongst whom was the Author of this history,) all of them impatient to see this extraordinary person. The figure and presence of Charles Stuart were not ill suited to his lofty pretensions. He was in the prime of youth, tall and handsome, of a fair complexion; he had a light-coloured periwig with his own hair combed over the front: he wore the Highland dress,

---

'* It is no less certain, though not so generally known, that Locheil left his own house, determined (as he thought) not to take arms: in his way to Boradale, he called at the house of his brother, John Cameron of Fassefern, who came out immediately, and asked —What was the matter that had brought him there at so early an hour? Locheil told him that the Prince was landed at Boradale, and had sent for him. Fassefern asked What troops the Prince had brought with him? what money? what arms? Locheil answered, that he believed the Prince had brought with him neither troops, nor money, nor arms; and, therefore, he was resolved not to be concerned in the affair, and would do his utmost to prevent Charles from making a rash attempt Fassefern approved his brother's sentiments, and applauded his resolution: advising him, at the same time, not to go any farther on the way to Boradale, but to come into the house, and impart his mind to the Prince by letter. No, said Locheil, I ought at least to wait upon him, and give my reasons for declining to join him, which admit of no reply. Brother, said Fassefern, I know you better than you know yourself. If this Prince once sets his eyes upon you, he will make you do whatever he pleases. Fassefern, in the year 1781, repeated the conversation between him and his brother to the author of this History.'

† This elegant phrase occurs several times in the present volume, and indeed the language would in other instances often admit of correction and polish.

that is a tartan short coat without the plaid, a blue bonnet on his head, and on his breast the star of the order of St. Andrew. Charles stood some time in the park to shew himself to the people, and then, though he was very near the palace, mounted his horse, either to render himself more conspicuous, or because he rode well, and looked graceful on horseback.

'The Jacobites were charmed with his appearance: they compared him to Robert the Bruce, whom he resembled (they said) in his figure as in his fortune. The Whigs looked upon him with other eyes. They acknowledged that he was a goodly person; but they observed, that even in that triumphant hour, when he was about to enter the palace of his fathers, the air of his countenance was languid and melancholy: that he looked like a gentleman and a man of fashion, but not like a hero or a conqueror. Hence they formed their conclusions that the enterprise was above the pitch of his mind; and that his heart was not great enough for the sphere in which he moved. When Charles came to the palace, he dismounted, and walked along the piazza, towards the apartment of the Duke of Hamilton.'

In this part of the work, an engraving of the Prince is introduced, taken from a bust executed at Paris by Le Moine, in the year 1749.

The following paragraph will shew the manner in which Charles passed his time after his father had been proclaimed at Edinburgh:

'The Prince Regent, in the morning, before the Council met, had a levee of his officers, and other people who favoured his cause. When the Council rose, which often sat very long, for his Counsellors frequently differed in opinion with one another, and sometimes with him, Charles dined in public with his principal officers. After dinner he rode out with his life guards, and usually went to Duddingston, where his army lay. In the evening he returned to Holyrood House, and received the ladies who came to his drawing-room: he then supped in public, and generally there was music at supper, and a ball afterwards.'

The events of the battles of Preston, Falkirk, and Culloden, which last engagement extinguished the rebellion, are too well known to justify us in expatiating on them. In the first victories obtained by the Pretender's party, the royal troops appear to have acted in a dastardly or a treacherous manner; and the advantages of Charles were rather owing to the consternation of his opponents, than to the superior bravery or exertions of his followers. In the last conflict, the spirit of the Highlanders seems in a great measure to have deserted them, and the field was won with less effort than might have been expected. This circumstance is partly imputable to the absence of some of the clans, and to the disaffection subsisting among the

the chiefs. In the present account of these events, we discover nothing that is either new or particularly interesting: but we remarked, with a degree of surprise, which indeed was lessened by observing that the work was dedicated to his Majesty, the silence maintained by the author regarding the conduct of the commander in chief at the battle of Culloden, and the use which he made of his victory.

It is impossible for the most determined Whig, if he possess any feelings of humanity, to read a description of the hardships which the Pretender underwent after his defeat, and of the many dangers to which he was exposed, without feeling a sincere interest in the fortunes of the sufferer. Charles continued in the great hill Corado, which is situated between Kintail and Glenmoriston, with seven Highlanders, for the space of five weeks.—Their fidelity is proved by the following note:

'Charles staid in the cave with these men five weeks and three days: during this long abode, either thinking he would be safer with gentlemen, than with common fellows of a loose character, or desirous of better company, he told Glenaladale that he intended to put himself into the hands of some of the neighbouring gentlemen; and desired him to inquire about them, and learn who was the most proper person for him to apply to. Glenaladale talking with the Highlanders about the gentlemen in their neighbourhood, and inquiring into their character, they guessed from his questions what was the intention of Charles; and conjured him to dissuade the Prince from it, saying, that no reward could be any temptation to them; for if they betrayed the Prince, they must leave their country, as nobody would speak to them, except to curse them: whereas £30,000 was a great reward to a poor gentleman, who could go to Edinburgh or London with his money, where he would find people enough to live with him, and eat his meat and drink his wine.'

We shall conclude our extracts with an entertaining passage from the Appendix; which depicts the manners of the age and of the country, and points out the extreme difficulties under which Charles escaped from the pursuit of his enemies:

'The Prince lay the first night at Corineur, after his coming to Badenoch, from which he was conducted next day to Mellanauir, a shealing of very narrow compass, where Locheil, with Macpherson of Breakachie, Allan Cameron, his principal servant, and two servants of Clunie, were at the time. It cannot but be remarked, that, when Locheil saw five men approaching under arms, being the Prince, Lochgary, Dr. Cameron, and two servants, taking the five men to be of the army or militia, who lay encamped not above four or five miles from them, and were probably in search of them; as it was in vain to think of flying, Locheil at the time being quite lame, and not in any condition to travel, much less to run away; it was resolved that the enemy, as they judged them to be, should be received

ceived with a general discharge of all the arms, in number twelve firelocks and some pistols; which they had in the small shealing house or bothie (as such small huts are commonly called), in which they at the time lodged; whereupon all was made ready, the pieces planted and levelled, and in short, they flattered themselves of getting the better of the searchers, there being no more than their own number; and likewise considering the great advantage they had of firing at them without being at all observed, and the conveniency of so many spare arms. But the auspicious hand of Almighty God, and his Providence, so apparent at all times in the preservation of His Royal Highness, prevented those within from firing at the Prince with his four attendants; for they came at last so near that they were known by those within. Locheil, upon making this discovery, made the best of his way, though lame, to meet His Royal Highness, who received him very graciously. The joy at this meeting is much easier to be conceived than expressed. And when Locheil would have kneeled, on coming up to the Prince—"Oh! no, my dear Locheil, (said His Royal Highness, clapping him on the shoulder) we do not know who may be looking from the top of yonder hills; and if they see any such motions, they'll immediately conclude that I am here." Locheil then ushered him into his habitation, which was indeed but a very poor one. The Prince was gay, and in better spirits than it was possible to think he could have been, considering the many disasters, disappointments, fatigues and difficulties, he had undergone. His Royal Highness, with his retinue, went into the hut; and there was more meat and drink provided for him than he expected. There was plenty of mutton, an anker of whisky, containing twenty Scots pints, some good beef sausages made the year before, with plenty of butter and cheese, besides a large well cured bacon ham. Upon his entry, the Prince took a hearty dram, which he sometimes called for thereafter, to drink the healths of his friends. When some minced collops were dressed with butter, in a large saucespan, which Locheil and Clunie carried always about with them, being the only fire vessel they had, His Royal Highness eat heartily, and said with a very cheerful countenance: "Now, gentlemen, I live like a Prince:" though at the same time he was no otherwise entertained than eating his collops out of the pan with a silver spoon. After dinner, he asked Locheil if he had always lived here, during his skulking, in such a good way. "Yes, Sir," answered Locheil, "for near three months that I have been hereabouts with my cousin Clunie, he has provided for me so well, that I have had plenty of such as you see; and I thank Heaven your Royal Highness has got through so many dangers to take a part."

'In two days after, His Royal Highness went and lodged with Locheil at Mellanauir, to which place Clunie came to them from Auchnicarry. Upon his entering the hut, when he would have kneeled, His Royal Highness prevented him, and kissed him as if he had been an equal; saying, "I am sorry, Clunie, you and your regiment were not at Culloden: I did not hear, till very lately, that you were so near us that day."

'The

'The day after Clunie arrived, he thought it time to remove from Mellanauir, and took the Prince about two miles farther into Benalder, to a little sheal called Uiskchibra, where the hut or bothie was superlatively bad and smoky; yet His Royal Highness put up with every thing. Here he remained for two or three nights, and then removed to a very romantic habitation, made for him by Clunie, two miles farther into Benalder, called the Cage; which was a great curiosity, and can scarcely be described to perfection. It was situated in the face of a very rough, high and rocky mountain, called Letternilichk, still a part of Benalder, full of great stones and crevices, and some scattered wood interspersed. The habitation called the Cage, in the face of that mountain, was within a small thick bush of wood. There were first some rows of trees laid down, in order to level a floor for the habitation; and as the place was steep, this raised the lower side to an equal height with the other; and these trees, in the way of joists or planks, were levelled with earth and gravel. There were betwixt the trees, growing naturally on their own roots, some stakes fixed in the earth, which, with the trees, were interwoven with ropes, made of heath and birch twigs, up to the top of the Cage, it being of a round or rather oval shape; and the whole thatched and covered over with fog. This whole fabric hung, as it were, by a large tree, which reclined from the one end, all along the roof to the other, and which gave it the name of the Cage, and by chance there happened to be two stones at a small distance from one another, in the side next the precipice, resembling the pillars of a chimney where the fire was placed. The smoke had its vent out here, all along the face of the rock, which was so much of the same colour, that one could discover no difference in the clearest day. The Cage was no larger than to contain six or seven persons; four of whom were frequently employed playing at cards, one idle looking on, one baking, and another firing bread and cooking. Here His Royal Highness remained till the 13th of September, when he was informed, that the vessels for receiving and carrying him to France were arrived at Lochnanuagh. The Prince set out immediately; and travelling only by night, arrived at Boradale near Lochnanuagh, on the 19th of September, and embarked there on the 20th.'

This work, as will appear from the extracts, is written with plainness and simplicity; and if some facts be omitted, or some obvious reflections avoided, nothing seems to us to have been "set down in malice."

S.R.

ART. II. *Transactions of the American Philosophical Society, held at Philadelphia, for promoting useful Knowledge.* Vol. IV. 4to. pp. 700. Philadelphia, 1799. Imported by Johnson, London. Price 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards.

THIS volume has, by some accident, escaped our notice for a considerable period: but we shall now endeavour to report

report its contents with all convenient promptitude and conciseness.

Experiments and Observations relating to the Analysis of Atmospherical Air, by the Rev. Dr. J. Priestley.—After the full account which we have given of Dr. P.'s tract on the doctrine of Phlogiston *, we find it necessary to say little of the paper before us. From the small diminution of air, in the process of whitening bones in it by heat, and from a similar result in heating polished steel needles, Dr. Priestley concludes against the theory of the French chemists. He asserts, next, that dephlogisticated and inflammable air will unite completely, by being confined some time together in a moist bladder.

'Having mixed equal quantities of those kinds of air, I put them into a bladder, which I left floating in a trough of water, and found, after about a fortnight, that the quantity was considerably diminished; and examining it, I found it to be almost wholly phlogisticated, though there was something slightly inflammable in it. On this I put equal measures (but omitted to note the quantity) of each of the kinds of air into another bladder, and after about three weeks, found it reduced to 12 5 ounce measures, all pure phlogisticated air, without any mixture of fixed or inflammable air that I could perceive.'

Some other arguments are adduced, which we suppose will not be reckoned satisfactory by the partisans of the new chemistry.

Farther Experiments relating to the Generation of Air from Water, by the Same. - In these experiments, Dr. P. states the quantity of air which he has procured from distilled water, without decomposing it. The general result is that he found it impossible to convert the *whole* of the water into air.

Appendix to the preceding Memoirs, by the Same.—This short paper contains some additions to and explanations of the foregoing essays.—See also Dr. Woodhouse's observations, mentioned in a subsequent part of this article.

On the Expansion of Wood by Heat, in a Letter from David Rittenhouse, *L.L.D. President of the Society* —From experiments made with a pyrometer, Dr. Rittenhouse found that dry wood expands with heat, though much less considerably than the metals, or than glass.

Experiments on Evaporation, by C. Wistar, M. D. — Dr. Wistar's opinion respecting the evaporation which takes place from the surface of melting ice, suspended in air, reduced to

---

* Rev. vol. xxxvi. N. S. p. 250.

the

the temperature of o, (Fahrenheit) is here confirmed by experiment. The inelastic vapour, raised on this occasion, is attributed to the passage of heat from the moist body into the contiguous air.

A Memoir concerning the Fascinating Faculty which has been ascribed to the Rattle-Snake and other American Serpents. By Benjamin Smith Barton, M. D.—This ingenious essay will serve to eradicate the last remainsof a superstitious opinion, long maintained in natural history. Dr. Barton proves,by a variety of facts, that the motions of birds, which have been attributed to a fascinating power in the eyes of serpents, are in reality calculated to drive away the reptiles from the bird's young, or to divert their attention from the nest.

'I have already observed, that the rattle-snake does not climb up trees. But the black snake and some other species of the genus coluber do. When impelled by hunger, and incapable of satisfying it by the capture of animals on the ground, they begin to glide up trees or bushes, upon which a bird has its nest. The bird is not ignorant of the serpent's object. She leaves her nest, whether it contains eggs or young ones, and endeavours to oppose the reptile's progress. In doing this, she is actuated by the strength of her instinctive attachment to her eggs, or of affection to her young. Her cry is melancholy, her motions are tremulous. She exposes herself to the most imminent danger. Sometimes, she approaches so near the reptile that he seizes her as his prey. But this is far from being universally the case. Often, she compels the serpent to leave the tree, and then returns to her nest.'

The following incident, related on the authority of Dr. Rittenhouse, strongly confirms Dr. Barton's opinion:

'Some years since, this ingenious gentleman was induced to suppose, from the peculiar melancholy cry of a red-winged-maize-thief, that a snake was at no great distance from it, and that the bird was in distress. He threw a stone at the place from which the cry proceeded, which had the effect of driving the bird away. The poor animal, however, immediately returned to the same spot. Mr. Rittenhouse now went to the place where the bird alighted, and, to his great astonishment, he found it perched upon the back of a large black-snake, which it was pecking with its beak. At this very time, the serpent was in the act of swallowing a young bird, and from the enlarged size of the reptile's belly it was evident, that it had already swallowed two or three other young birds. After the snake was killed, the old bird flew away.'

As additional arguments, Dr. Barton observes that the usual food of the rattle-snake is the great frog; and that some of the stronger and more courageous American birds attack and devour the rattle-snake himself: the swallow-tailed hawk, and the larger kinds of owls, are particularly mentioned as his antagonists. The author adds, in a note;

'It is commonly believed, that the rattle-snake is a very hardy animal; but this is not the case. A very small stroke on any part of its body disables it from running at all; and the slightest stroke upon the top of the head is followed by instant death. The skull-bone is remarkably thin and brittle; so much so indeed, that it is thought that a stroke from the wing of a thrush or robin would be sufficient to break it.'

The whole memoir will be read with much pleasure.

Some Account of an American Species of Dipus, or Jerboa. By the Same.—Dr. Barton has minutely described the distinctions between this animal and the *Dipus Hudsonius*; and an engraving of the latter is annexed to the paper. Little is yet known respecting the habits of this new species: but Dr. B. promises farther researches, which cannot fail to prove highly acceptable to the lovers of natural history.

A Letter from Mr. John Heckewalder, *to Dr. Barton, giving an Account of the remarkable Instinct of a Bird called the Nine-killer.*—This curious fact cannot be better detailed than in the author's own words:

'I went to a farm, about eleven miles and a half from this place, to view a young orchard, which had been planted, about five weeks ago, under my direction, where on viewing the trees, I found, to my great astonishment, almost on every one of them, one and on some two and three grasshoppers, stuck down on the sharp thorny branches, which were not pruned when the trees were planted. I immediately called the tenant, and asked the reason and his opinion of this. He was much surprised at my ignorance about the matter, and informed me, that these grasshoppers were stuck up by a small bird of prey, which the Germans calleed *Neun-toedter* (in English, Nine-killer); that this bird had a practice of catching and sticking up nine grasshoppers a day, and that as he well knew they did not devour the grasshoppers, nor any other insects, he thought they must do it for pleasure. I asked him for a description of this bird, and was perfectly satisfied that it lived entirely on small animals, such as small birds, mice, &c. for I had paid attention to this bird as early as the year 1761, when, in the winter, one of the same species took a favourite little bird of mine out of my cage at the window, from which time I have watched them more closely, and have found them more numerous in the western country than here. Not being satisfied with what the tenant had told me respecting the intention of the bird's doing all this (viz for diversion's sake), and particularly observing each and every one of these grasshoppers stuck up so regularly, and in their natural position as when on the ground, not one of them having its back downwards, I began to conjecture what might be the real intention which the bird had in this, and my determined opinion was, that this little bird-hawk, by instinct, made use of this art, in order to decoy the smaller birds, which feed on insects, and by these means have a fair opportunity of catching them. All this I communicated to my friends on my return home, and

and they were not less astonished at what I had related to them, than I had been on discovering the fact. It being agreed that one or more gentlemen of learning and observation should more minutely examine into this matter, the proprietor of this farm, with another gentleman and myself, went this day out for the purpose; and viewing the grasshoppers on a number of these small trees (some of which we cut off, and took home), we returned to the tenant, who not only himself but also his father and sister gave us the best assurances, that they had, long since, and from time to time, observed this bird catching grasshoppers and sticking them up in the manner already related, and that sometimes they had observed, in places where this species of bird keeps, numbers of grasshoppers stuck up on a thorn-bush in like manner. The Reverend Mr. V. Vleck is perfectly satisfied that this bird-hawk is the Lanius Canadensis (in Bartram), and has obligingly communicated the following account of this little bird-hawk to me: it is extracted from a German publication printed at Gœttingen, in 1778, under the title of "Natural History for Children, by M. George Christian Paff," who after giving a description of the different species of this bird, concludes thus: "Why is this bird of prey called the nine-killer? Because it is said to have the habit of sticking beetles or other insects, and perhaps sometimes nine of them in succession, upon thorns, that they may not escape until he has leisure to devour them all at once. And for the same reason, it is sometimes called the thorn-sticker." Now by the above account, we see that it is known in Europe that this same species of birds actually does stick up insects of different kinds on thorns, &c. but it is supposed they eat them immediately after being stuck up. Here the case is quite otherwise. They remain stuck up, for we must suppose these to have been stuck up at least some weeks ago, and before the hard frosts set in. The very birds (as we suppose) that stuck them up are now on the same ground, watching the smaller birds that come out to feed, and have been seen catching the latter but a few days ago. If it were true, that this little hawk had stuck them up for himself, how long would he be feeding on one or two hundred grasshoppers? But if it be intended to seduce the smaller birds to feed on these insects, in order to have an opportunity of catching them, that number, or even one half, or less, may be a good bait all winter; and all of us, who have considered these circumstances, are firmly of opinion, that these insects thus stuck up, are to serve as a bait, &c. through the course of the winter.'

An Enquiry into the Causes of the Insalubrity of flat and marshy Situations; and Directions for preventing or correcting the Effects thereof; by William Currie.—This gentleman imputes the unhealthiness of marshes to their action on the surrounding atmosphere, in which he supposes them to diminish the proportion of oxygen. This may perhaps be one cause of the mischief produced by them: but we apprehend that it is insufficient to account for the whole of the phænomena, in which *moisture* certainly has a considerable share. Mr. Currie's

peculiar hypothesis has not led him to propose any new mode of prevention: draining and cultivation, which he recommends, are old and well known means of redress.

A Letter from Colonel Winthrop Sargent, *to Dr. Benjamin Smith Barton, accompanying Drawings and some Account of certain Articles, which were taken out of an ancient Tumulus, or Grave, in the Western Country.*

Explanations of the Engravings of these Antiquities.

Observations and Conjectures concerning certain Articles which were taken out of an ancient Tumulus, or Grave, in the County of Hamilton, and Territory of the United States, N. W. of the River Ohio; in a Letter from Dr. Barton *to the Rev. Dr. Priestley.*—

In this latter paper, Dr. Barton endeavours to establish two points; 1. the early population of America; and 2. the superior civilization of the aboriginal inhabitants over the present Indians. His account of the field-fortifications, barrows, and hieroglyphics, discovered in different parts of the western territory, will remind the reader strongly of similar antiquities in the north of Europe.

In a second part of this paper, Dr. Barton offers conjectures respecting the articles found in this place of interment, some of which he supposes to have been personal ornaments, and others to have served for superstitious purposes. He concludes with proposing to extend the researches on this subject, by opening the tumuli existing in the northern parts of America.

Miscellaneous Observations relative to the Western Parts of Pennsylvania, particularly those in the Neighbourhood of Lake Erie. By Andrew Ellicott.—The author of this paper thinks that the ebbings and flowings of lake Erie, which have been supposed to be tides, are occasioned by the prevalence of strong easterly or westerly winds, which drive a portion of the water towards the upper or lower end of the lake. Some other circumstances, of less importance, are mentioned; and Mr. E. concludes with an account of the falls of Niagara. The general view of the cause of this cataract is curious:

'Lake Erie is situated upon one of those horizontal strata in a region elevated about three hundred feet above the country which contains Lake Ontario. The descent which separates the two countries, is in some places almost perpendicular, and the immense declivity formed by these strata occasions both the cataract of Niagara and the great falls of Cheneseco. This remarkable precipice generally runs in a south-western direction from a place near the Bay of Toronto on the northern side of Ontario, round the western angle of the lake; from thence it continues its course generally in an eastern

ern direction, crossing the strait of Niagara and the Cheneseco river, till it is lost in the country towards the Seneca Lake.'

Hints relative to the Stimulant Effects of Camphor upon Vegetables. By Benjamin Smith Barton, M. D.—The following curious experiment forms the basis of this short paper:

'On the 25th of last May, I put a piece of the woody stem of the Tulip-tree (Liriodendron Tulipifera), with one flower and two leaves, into eight ounces of water, with which I had triturated, for some time, one scruple of good camphor. The branch, which I speak of, was taken out of a pot of water, which contained several other flowers of the same plant, all, to appearance, in the same state. In a short time, I was struck with an unusually lively appearance of the flower in the camphor, whilst the others, although they had the benefit of a larger quantity of water, were sensibly drooping. The appearances exhibited by my invigorated plant were the following: viz the two leaves became considerably elevated upon their footstalks; the flower expanded more than I had ever seen it in any instance; the stamina, or chives, receded from the pistillum; the three leaves of the calyx, or flower-cup, were remarkably reflected back, and became extremely rigid, and elastic. The internal surface of the petals of the flower perspired considerably; though I could not discover a similar perspiration from any of the flowers of the same plant in the same room and temperature. I did not perceive any perspiration from the leaves of my camphorated plant.'

On the Mode most easily and effectually practicable of drying up the Marshes of the Maritime Parts of North America. By Thomas Wright, *Licentiate of the College of Surgeons in Ireland, and Teacher of Anatomy.*—Mr. Wright proposes to dry the marshy lands of America by evaporation; and to effect this purpose, he thinks it would only be necessary to open some tracts through the woods, in the direction of the N. W. and S. E. winds, so as to subject the wet lands to their periodical action.

A Memoir on the Discovery of certain Bones of a Quadruped of the clawed Kind, in the Western Parts of Virginia. By Thomas Jefferson, Esq.—This interesting paper contains the most satisfactory view, which we have yet seen, of a subject that has long tantalized the expectations of naturalists. From the discovery of some bones in the county of Greenbriar, Mr. Jefferson infers the existence of an animal similar to the lion, which he denominates Megalonyx, or the *Great Claw.* The bones were;

'1*st.* A small fragment of the femur or thigh bone; being in fact only its lower extremity, separated from the main bone at its epiphysis, so as to give us only the two condyles; but these are nearly entire.

'2*d.* A radius, perfect.

'3*d.* An ulna, or fore-arm, perfect, except that it is broken in two.

'*4th.* Three claws, and half a dozen other bones of the foot; but whether of a fore or hinder foot, is not evident.'

By comparing the measures of these bones with those of the lion, as given by M. Daubenton, the author is led to suppose that the American animal was more than three times as large as the lion.

Different authorities are quoted for the existence of animals resembling the lion in North America: we extract the following:

'The terror excited by these animals is not confined to brutes alone. A person of the name of Draper had gone in the year 1770, to hunt on the Kanhawa. He had turned his horse loose with a bell on, and had not yet got out of hearing when his attention was recalled by the rapid ringing of the bell. Suspecting that Indians might be attempting to take off his horse, he immediately returned to him, but before he arrived he was half eaten up. His dog scenting the trace of a wild beast, he followed him on it, and soon came in sight of an animal of such enormous size, that, though one of our most daring hunters and best marksmen, he withdrew instantly, and as silently as possible, checking and bringing off his dog. He could recollect no more of the animal than his terrific bulk, and that his general outlines were those of the cat kind. He was familiar with our animal miscalled the panther, with our wolves and wild beasts generally, and would not have mistaken nor shrunk from them.'

Mr. Jefferson takes this occasion to refute, with great solidity, Buffon's visions respecting the supposed degeneracy of animals in America.

A Letter from Mr. John Heckewelder *to Dr. Barton, containing an Account of an Animal called the Big Naked Bear.*—The Indian traditions respecting this animal are,

'That among all animals that had been formerly in this country, this was the most ferocious. That it was much larger, than the largest of the common bears, and remarkably long-bodied; all over, (except a spot of hair on its back of a white colour,) naked. That it attacked and devoured man and beast, and that a man, or a common bear, only served for one meal to one of these animals. That with its teeth it could crack the strongest bones. That it could not see very well; but in discovering its prey by scent, it exceeded all other animals. That it pursued its prey with unremitting ravenousness, and that there was no other way of escaping, but by taking to a river, and either swimming down the same, or saving one's self by means of a canoe. That, its heart being remarkably small, it could seldom be killed with the arrow. The surest way of destroying him was to break his back-bone. That when a party went out to destroy this animal, they first took leave of their friends and relations at home, considering themselves as going on an expedition, perhaps never to return again.'

Such

Such vague testimony can lead to nothing conclusive in natural history.

Experiments and Observations on Land and Sea Air. By Adam Seybert, M. D.—The result of Dr. Seybert's experiments is, that the atmosphere at sea is considerably purer than it is on land.

The most probable conjecture which Dr. S. advances, to account for this phænomena, is that some foreign substances may be suspended in the atmosphere of the land, which are liable to be absorbed by water. A copious table of the experiments is subjoined.

Translation of a Memoir on a new Species of Siren. By M. de Beauvois.—The existence of this animal, denominated by M. de Beauvois the *Siren operculata*, from two *opercula* united under the head, proves in his opinion that Linné was correct in classing the *Inguana* among amphibious animals. He proposes accordingly to revive the class of *Meantes* established by that author, but suppressed by some later naturalists.

Observations intended to favour a Supposition that the Black Colour (as it is called) of the Negroes is derived from the Leprosy. By Dr. Benjamin Rush.—We have seldom met with a more unsatisfactory attempt at conjecture than the present paper exhibits. The most vague and loose analogies are here produced to substantiate an hypothesis, monstrous in its terms, and incredible in its consequences. Dr. Rush not only considers the black colour of the negroes as a disease, but he thinks that it is curable by art!

'Is the color of the negroes a disease? Then let science and humanity combine their efforts, and endeavour to discover a remedy for it. Nature has lately unfurled a banner upon this subject. She has begun spontaneous cures of this disease in several black people in this country. In a certain Henry Moss, who lately travelled through this city, and was exhibited as a show for money, the cure was nearly complete. The change from black to a natural white flesh color began about five years ago at the ends of his fingers, and has extended gradually over the greatest part of his body. The wool which formerly perforated the cuticle has been changed into hair. No change in the diet, drinks, dress, employments, or situation of this man had taken place previously to this change in his ſkin. But this fact does not militate against artificial attempts to dislodge the color in negroes, any more than the spontaneous cures of many other diseases militate against the use of medicine in the practice of phyſic.'

The Doctor has added, to this case, several notable observations on the propriety of whitening the skins of negroes. Dr.

Beddoes, he says, lessened the blackness in the hand of a negro, by immersing it in the oxygenated muriatic acid. Why did not Dr. Rush speak out, and propose at once to send a colony of *bleachers* to the coast of Africa, properly instructed in the new chemical process, for the purpose of giving the European tint to the sooty complexion of the inhabitants? Really, we never expected that the old fable of *washing the blackamoor white* would have been thus realized.

Perhaps, however, the ingenious Doctor may recollect that, as the membrane, which is the seat of the dark colour in negroes, is *not* external, its hue cannot be materially affected by external applications. In proportion as the cuticle is deprived of colour, therefore, the blackness of the *rete mucosum* must become more conspicuous.

Experiments upon Magnetism. Communicated in a Letter to Thomas Jefferson, President of the Philosophical Society, by the Rev. James Madison, *President of William and Mary College.* —These experiments were instituted to explain the peculiar arrangement of iron filings, which takes place when they are scattered round a magnet, on a piece of paper: which arrangement has been supposed to indicate the passage of a magnetic fluid, or of effluvia, in curved lines, from one pole to its opposite. Mr. Madison concludes, from his experiments, that this phænomenon is produced by the attraction of each pole, and by the magnetic power acquired by each particle of the filings, when it arrives within a short distance of its attracting pole.

Memoir on Amphibia. By M. de Beauvois.—In this paper, M. de Beauvois has collected many curious and important observations respecting serpents. He denies the power of fascination, ascribed to the Boiquira, or rattle-snake; and he even produces experiments to prove that this snake will not attempt to seize a live bird confined in the same cage with him, though he will eat a dead one when it is presented to him. The birds shut up with the snake shewed no signs of terror, nor of uneasiness, and one of them even rested on the back of the reptile without disturbing it.

The Boiquira, on which these experiments were made, never would eat frogs, whether they were presented dead or alive to him. M. de Beauvois observes that, besides the two species of Crotalus marked by Linné, there is a third, called the water-rattle-snake:—

'This new species, which is spoken of neither by Catesby nor Linnæus, nor by any author with whom I am acquainted, appears to have been confounded with the crotalus horridus. It differs from it

it notwithstanding, essentially, both by its habits and external form. The boiquira is marked across the back by dark brown transversal lines, a little diagonal, terminated, on each side, by a spot almost round, of the same colour. The back of the other serpent is covered with parallelograms or lozenges of a browner colour than the rest of the body, and terminated by a yellow border.'

The danger of approaching the rattle-snake, we are told, has been greatly exaggerated.

M. de B. had an opportunity of ascertaining a curious fact; viz. that, on an alarm being given, the young rattle-snakes conceal themselves in the body of the female, into which they enter by her mouth:

'During my convalescence, I took a walk every morning in the neighbourhood, and one day when I was following a pretty broad path, I perceived, at a distance, a serpent lying across the road in the sun. I had a stick in my hand, and drew near to kill it, but what was my surprize, when, in the moment that I was about to give the blow, the reptile perceived me, coiled upon itself, and opened its large mouth, into which five serpents, which I had not till then observed, because they were lying along its body, rushed into the gulf which I had conceived opened for myself. I retired to one side, and hid myself behind a tree, the reptile had crawled a few paces, but, hearing no farther noise, and not perceiving me, stretched itself out afresh. In a quarter of an hour the young ones came out again. Satisfied with this observation I advanced anew towards the animal, with intention to kill it and examine the interior of its stomach; but it did not permit me to approach so near as it did the first time, the young ones entered with still greater precipitation into their retreat, and the boiquira fled into the grass. My satisfaction and astonishment were so great that I did not think of following it.'

The author next gives an account of the mode of hunting for rattle-snakes in their holes; and he describes accurately the arrangement of the young teeth of these reptiles, destined to supply the place of those which fall out annually. The bladder for lodging the poison, and the notches in the fangs through which it is conveyed, are also described and delineated. The paper concludes with some strictures on Linné's arrangement of serpents, and with the proposal of a new one.

An Enquiry into the comparative Effects of the Opium Officinarum, extracted from the Papaver somniferum, or White Poppy of Linnæus, and of that procured from the Lactuca sativa, or common cultivated Lettuce of the same Author. By John Redman Coxe, M. D. &c.—From a variety of experiments, both on the human subject and on amphibious animals, Dr. Coxe infers that the opium produced from the lettuce is identically the same with that which is derived from poppies. Besides

diminishing the price of opium, its extraction from lettuce would, in Dr. Coxe's opinion, become a very profitable species of culture.

Experiments and Observations on the Atmosphere of Marshes. By Adam Seybert, M. D.—The experiments of this gentleman have led him to conclusions which rather differ from those of former investigators. He supposes that marsh-air contains a large proportion of carbonic acid gas and of oxygen; and that the hydrogen, which is obtained by the surface of stagnant water, is produced by a decomposition of the water, and of the putrifying animal and vegetable substances contained in it. —Dr. S. is also of opinion that marshes are designed by Providence to support the balance among the component parts of the atmosphere, by correcting the effects of vegetation, which might ultimately overcharge the air with oxygen.

An Essay on a new Method of treating the Effusion which collects under the Skull after Fractures of the Head. By J. Deveze, Officer of Health, of the first Class, in the French Armies.—In cases in which the discharge of effused fluid is prevented by the adhesion of the *dura mater* to the skull, at the sutures, Dr. Deveze recommends, instead of making a fresh opening with the trepan, a separation of the adhering membrane from the skull by means of a blunt probe.

An Answer to Dr. Priestley's Considerations on the Doctrine of Phlogiston, and the Decomposition of Water; founded upon demonstrative Experiments. By James Woodhouse, M. D. Professor of Chemistry in the University of Pennsylvania.—This accurate and well-written paper contains a satisfactory solution of the difficulties started by Dr. Priestley, in the two essays which open this volume: but, as it would lead us far beyond our limits to follow Dr. W's train of argument, we shall only notice a new fact which he has ascertained; viz. that turbith mineral, instead of being a pure oxyd of mercury, contains sulphuric acid, and may be regarded as a sulphate of mercury. We refer those readers, who may have been staggered by Dr. Priestley's objections to the new theory, to a perusal of this memoir for a complete settlement of the question.

Memoirs on the extraneous Fossils denominated Mammoth-Bones: principally designed to shew, that they are the Remains of more than one Species of non-descript Animal. By George Turner.—It had been generally imagined that the bones of the Mammoth were only to be found in the northern parts of America. Mr. Turner, however, informs us that a considerable deposit of them has lately been discovered in South

 Carolina.

Carolina. He is of opinion that the various bones, which have been supposed to belong to this animal, ought to be referred to *two* distinct species; one of which he conceives to have been carnivorous, the other herbivorous. The parts, he says, which mark the remains of a second species, are a grinder exclusively belonging to graminivorous and herbivorous animals, and two tusks, differently fashioned.

Mr. T. thinks that both these species of *incognita* have long since perished. From some Indian traditions, joined to the uncommon appearances at the Great Bone Lick, he is inclined to believe that the Mammoth united to his uncommon bulk and strength, the agility of the tyger.

A Description of the Bones deposited, by the President, in the Museum of the Society, and represented in the annexed Plates. By C. Wistar, M. D.—This paper contains an anatomical description of these curious bones, which cannot be understood without the plates. It proves that the Mammoth, or *animal incognitum*, must have been provided with claws.

Some farther particulars respecting this animal have lately been published in our Philosophical Transactions. See Rev. for March last, p. 303.

[*To be continued.*] Fer.

ART. III. *Specimens of Literary Resemblance in the Works of Pope, Gray, and other celebrated Writers;* with critical Observations: In a Series of Letters, by the Reverend Samuel Berdmore, D D. late Master of the Charter-house School. 8vo. pp. 127. 4s. Boards. Wilkie. 1801.

THIS volume contains a formidable attack on Dr. Hurd's "Marks of Imitation," and we believe that most readers will deem it successful. From the agreeable manner, indeed, in which Dr. Berdmore has treated the points of discussion, we cannot help wishing that he had extended his views to the subject of literary imitation in general: but this would have been transgressing the limits which he assigned to himself. In a strain of lively and ingenious raillery, he has detected the sources of Dr. Hurd's explanation of Virgil's invocation to Augustus, in the 3d Georgic; and he has shewn that the *discovery*, of which that learned critic assumed the merit, was nothing more than an obvious interpretation of the poet's words, which had been previously given by different commentators.—As it seldom happens that so amusing a *morceau* of criticism passes through our hands, we shall follow the author's own arrangement with more minute attention than we usually devote to such small productions.

 Dr. Berd-

Dr. Berdmore refers, in his first letter, to an essay published in the *Adventurer*, containing several instances in which Pope had borrowed the thoughts of Palingenius, and other writers, for his Essay on Man; and he intimates a suspicion that Dr. Hurd afterward availed himself, without acknowlegement, of these very quotations, in his Letter on the Marks of Imitation —an allegation which the passages produced appear satisfactorily to establish. The letter concludes with two examples of imitations from Ovid, by Mr. Pope, on which we must beg leave to remark, once for all, that none of our poets has laid preceding writers more largely under contribution than Pope; and that the margins of his pages might easily be filled with references to original authors, to whom most of his brilliant passages may be traced. We have already taken occasion to mention in our review, that the celebrated simile of the spreading circles of water, which has been generally reckoned original, was taken from a poem by Donne.

In the second letter, Dr. Berdmore digresses to a consideration of the introductory stanza of Mr. Gray's *Progress of Poetry*, where we have these admirable lines:

> "Now the rich stream of music winds along,
> Deep, majestic, smooth, and strong,
> Through verdant vales, and Ceres' golden reign:
> Now, rolling from the steep amain,
> Headlong impetuous see it pour;
> The rocks and nodding groves rebellow to the roar."

'The great excellencies of the sublimest poetry are here united with an ease and elegance, which give to the composition so much the air of an original, that none of Mr. Gray's editors, or commentators on his works, seem to have suspected an imitation

'Mr. Mason, who appears to have been sufficiently assiduous in bringing together every sentiment, or expression, from other authors, bearing resemblance to any part of the writings of his respected friend, has produced no parallel to this exquisitely beautiful passage.

'Mr. Wakefield has also given us an edition of Mr. Gray's poems, enriched with many valuable and interesting notes: in which he professes "not to be sparing of quotations from the poets," and conceives "no author to be a more proper vehicle for remarks of "this sort, at once useful and entertaining, than Mr. Gray:" yet, in all his extensive range through the fields of classic lore, he notices only one or two slight resemblances.

'Having thus taken the liberty of introducing Mr. Wakefield, I cannot suffer so favorable an opportunity to escape me, without returning to that candid and discerning critic my warmest thanks, in which I am persuaded I shall be joined by every friend to genius, and lover of the Muses, for his very able and spirited defence of the British Pindar against the illiberal attacks of a prejudiced commentator;

tator; whose puerile strictures on these divine poems certainly cast a shade on his literary character.

'Even Dr. Johnson himself, willing, as he evidently was, *from whatever cause*, to degrade the high character which Mr. Gray deservedly held, of an original writer, with uncommon powers of fancy and invention, and, therefore, ever on the watch to detect any latent imitation, has been able to discover no instance of similar composition.

'Now allow me to submit to your consideration the following lines, which I am inclined to believe you have already in imagination anticipated, from one of the sublimeſt odes in Horace:

'——— Quod adest, memento
Componere æquus. Cætera fluminis
Ritu feruntur, nunc medio alveo
Cum pace delabentis Etruscum
In mare; nunc lapides adesos
Stirpesque raptas et pecus, et domos,
Volventis una, non sine montium
Clamore vicinæque sylvæ. B. III. O. 29.

'With this stanza before us, will there not arise in the mind something like *suspicion*, that Mr. Gray, when he wrote the fine lines quoted above, had *his eye on* Horace? Allow me to mark the principal features of resemblance. We have in each poet a stream, applied by the one to the various forms of poetry, by the other, to the vicissitudes of human affairs, with especial reference to political revolutions. It is conducted by both, first in a course of placid serenity, then in torrents of rapid impetuosity; and marked at the close, by the same striking and impressive consequence.

"The rocks and nodding groves rebellow to the roar."

Very nearly a verbal translation of the Latin text,

"Non sine montium
Clamore vicinæque sylvæ."

Here is certainly, in these two passages, an extraordinary coincidence of thought and imagery. In addition to which, the varying circumstances, described in both, follow each other exactly in the same order. The attentive reader will, however, discover, under this general similitude, a considerable difference in the mode of composition between the British and the Roman Pindar; enough, perhaps you will think, to remove all appearance of direct imitation. It is most probable that Gray, without recurring to the text of Horace, has only copied from the traces, which a frequent perusal had left upon his memory. This hypothesis will appear more credible, when we analyse the different forms of composition. While the stream of Horace glides quietly into the Etruscan ocean, with no other distinction than that of gentleness;

"*Cum pace* delabentis Etruscum
In mare;"

the stream of Gray winds along with a marked character, appropriate to his subject:

"Deep,

" Deep, majestic, smooth, and strong."

Mr. Gray gives also peculiar grace and beauty to the piece, by his skilful use of the metaphorical style, blending the simile with the subject, so much in the manner of Pindar; and not making, as Horace has done, a formal comparison of the one with the other.'

We admit the ingenuity of these observations: but is there not a passage in Horace still nearer to the " *deep, majestic, smooth, and strong,*" as well as to the general imagery of Gray? We allude to the second ode of the fourth book:

" *Monte decurrens, velut amnis, imbres*
Quem super notas aluere ripas,
Fervet, immensusque ruit profundo
Pindarus ore."

There can be little doubt that this fine image was in Gray's recollection, when he composed his ode.

Parallelisms of this kind, however, may be pursued to excess. Dr. Farmer has produced a curious instance in his Essay on the Learning of Shakespeare; and another remarkable example occurs to us at this moment. We have an old song, which runs thus;

" Tom loves Mary passing well,
But Mary she loves Harry;
While Harry sighs for bonny Bell,
But finds his love miscarry;
For, bonny Bell for Thomas burns,
While Thomas slights her passion;
So strangely freakish are the turns
Of human inclination."

What shall we say of its relation to the following lines of Moschus?

Ἦρα Πὰν Ἀχῶς τᾶς γειτονος, ἤρατο δ' Ἀχὼ
Σκιρτητᾶ Σατυρῳ, Σάτυρος δ' ἐπεμήνατο Λύδᾳ.
Ὡς Ἀχὼ τὸν Πᾶνα, τόσον Σάτυρος φλέγεν Ἀχῳ,
Καὶ Λυδα Σατυρίσκον· ἔρως δ' ἐσμυχετ' ἀμοιβα.

A coincidence of this nature *may* be accidental: but if the modern author can be proved to have read the original writer, a suspicion of plagiarism is almost unavoidable; although the amorous perplexities, described by Moschus, may have presented themselves to the observation of a rustic poet, in the undignified loves of his native village.

The subject of *incidental* (perhaps *unconscious*) imitation is pursued in the third letter, which contains some curious examples of this nature. We extract one passage, as a specimen of the author's mode of attack on Dr. Hurd, and for the sake of an hypercriticism which we think it necessary to make.

' Dr. Hurd

'Dr. Hurd somewhere notices a beautiful specimen of this delicate allusion in a poem called the Spleen, by Mr. Green of the Custom-house. The poet is recommending exercise, as a sovereign remedy against that depression of spirits, and those hypochondriac affections, which are always produced by this morbid humor; and exemplifies his doctrine by one of the simplest and most trivial modes, which can possibly be conceived.

'*Fling but a stone.*

'You will not discover in this plain sentence any great effort of imagination, any rich coloring of expression, any thing either of novelty or beauty. But when to this so common an action is added the unexpected image, under which is conveyed the promised benefit,

'*The giant dies,*

all the circumstances attending an interesting history, which we have been accustomed to read from our childhood, and to think important from an early reverence for the writings in which it is contained, are at once recalled to the mind; and give to the passage a life and spirit beyond what the greatest refinement of thought, with all the embellishment of language, could ever have produced.

'*Fling but a stone, the giant dies.*'

We are sorry to differ from such respectable authorities as those of Dr. Hurd and Dr. Berdmore: but we must confess that this celebrated passage has always appeared to us a petty conceit; and we therefore think that it is high time that its undeserved reputation should cease, and that young authors should be cautioned against so ineligible an example.

Dr. Berdmore here observes that we lose many beauties in the antient poets by our ignorance of facts, the allusions to which were perfectly understood by contemporaries. He instances, particularly, an obscure passage in Horace, which he has been happy in elucidating:

"——— Hinc *apicem rapax*
Fortuna cum *stridore acuto*
Sustulit, hic posuisse gaudet." CARM. Lib. 1. O. 34.

The commentators have given several unsatisfactory constructions of these lines. Dr. B. supposes, with considerable probability, that the figure here designed for fortune is that of a soaring eagle, and that the whole imagery refers to the story of Lucumo:

"Ei (Lucumoni) carpento sedenti cum uxore AQUILA, suspensis demissa leniter alis, *pileum* aufert, superque carpentum cum *magno clangore* volitans rursus, velut ministerio divinitùs missa, capiti aptè reponit; inde sublimis abiit. Accepisse id augurium læta dicitur Tanaquil, perita, ut vulgo Etrusci, cœlestium prodigiorum mulier. Excelsa et alta sperare, complexa virum, jubet. Eam alitem eâ regione

gione cœli, et ejus Dei nunciam, venisse. Circa summum culmen hominis auspicium fecisse. Levâssè humano superpositum capiti *decus*, ut eidem divinitùs redderet." Liv. lib. i. c. 34.

'Wonders and prodigies ever attend the remoter periods of great States and Kingdoms. They never fail to be recorded in their earlier annals; are superstitiously delivered down from father to son, and received with an easy and willing credence amongst the populace. Of this description is the tale of LUCUMO and the EAGLE; which I doubt not was as familiar amongst the Romans, as well-known, and as often repeated, as with us the Legends of King Arthur, and the Knights of the Round Table, Guy Earl of Warwick, St. George and the Dragon, &c.'

In Letter IV. Dr. B. resumes his attack on Dr. Hurd's interpretation of Virgil's allegory; and he produces several parallel passages, to shew that the learned critic (as he sarcastically styles the Bishop) drew all his opinions on this subject from the French annotator, Catrou.—The fifth letter pursues this resemblance in a strain of severe irony, which retorts much of Dr. H.'s contemptuous treatment of plagiarists on his own commentary.

Letter. VI. Here the author extends his critical rod to Warburton's allegorical explanation of the Sixth Book of the Æneid, and to the dispute with Dr. Jortin; respecting which, he informs us that he has in his possession a series of letters from Dr. Warburton to Dr. Jortin, in which he is repeatedly expressing his thanks for literary services received from Dr. Jortin, with many grateful acknowlegements of obligation. This part of the subject is attempted, Dr. B. tells us, in the peculiar manner of the learned critic: it certainly is not unhappily executed.

In the seventh letter, the pompous pretension, with which Dr. Hurd announced his discovery, is contrasted with the simplicity and modesty displayed by his anticipator, Catrou: this additional lash, perhaps, might have been spared.

Letter VIII. contains a sarcastic vindication of the *learned critic* from the suspicion of having copied from Catrou; concluding, however, with an avowal of the author's opinion, that there is nothing very meritorious in so easy an explanation.

Dr. Berdmore next recurs, in the ninth letter, to a passage in Pope's translation of the Iliad, mentioned in the beginning of the volume; and he has afforded an happy illustration of the use which Pope made of our best writers, in order to enrich the language of his version:

'The passage is in the last book of the Iliad, where Iris is represented as plunging from the sky into the sea.

' Ως ἐφατ'· Ὦρτο δὲ Ἶρις, ἀελλόπος, ἀγγελίηφι·
Μέσσῃγυς δὲ Σάμου τε καὶ Ἴμβρου παιπαλοέσσης
Ἔνθορε μείλανι πόντῳ, ἔπεφνε δὲ λίμνη.'

Ogilby and Cowper, it is remarked, have faithfully preserved the idea of Iris's rapid descent into the waves. Not so Pope:

" He added not; and Iris, from the skies,
Swift as a whirlwind, on the message flies;
Meteorous, the face of Ocean sweeps,
Refulgent gliding o'er the sable deeps:
Between where Samos wide his forests spreads,
And rocky Imbrus lifts its pointed heads,
Down plung'd the maid: the parted waves resound."

Dr. B. justly and acutely remarks that, if the two lines printed in Italics be omitted, the passage is complete, and approaches nearer to the sense of Homer:

' Where then did Pope pick up these extraneous ornaments; purpureos pannos? as little assorting with his own expressions, as with the Greek text. The truth is, he was seduced by the fascinating charms of our own immortal poet; and borrowed both the imagery and the expression from that fine passage in the P. L. where Milton describes the descent of the angelic train:

——" And from the other hill
To their first station, all in *bright* array,
The Cherubim descended, on the ground
Gliding meteorous, as evening mist,
Risen from a river, o'er the marish *glides*,
And gathers ground fast on the laborer's heel,
Homeward returning." B. xii. 626.

These borrowed lines Dr. B. proposes to transfer to another part, in which Thetis is represented as rising, like a mist, from the ocean:

" And like a *mist*, she rises 'bove the tide;
Meteorous, the face of ocean sweeps,
Refulgent gliding o'er the sable deeps."

Every reader of taste, we imagine, will approve this alteration.

The concluding letter affords specimens of much critical acumen, by the selection of passages in which some antient authors have *covertly praised themselves:* the *use of application*, however, is slyly made, by producing a striking instance of this nature from Dr. Hurd's " Marks of Imitation."

We cannot take leave of this work, without recommending it strongly to the attention of our literary friends; nor without expressing our regret that, since its publication, (and indeed since this article was written,) the republic of letters has lost the respectable author of these ingenious lucubrations.

Fer.

Art.

ART. IV. *An Enquiry into the Nature and Effects of the Paper Credit of Great Britain.* By Henry Thornton, Esq. M. P. 8vo. pp. 320. 7s. Boards. Hatchard. 1802.

IT is in a strain of irony that Pope thus apostrophizes the subject of this work:

"*Blest Paper Credit! last and best supply!*"

but so completely does this line express Mr. Thornton's serious and matured sentiments, that, detatched from its connection, it might have been employed as a motto to his volume; which details the advantages of paper credit, combats its depreciators, and classes it among the most valuable inventions. In addition to much practical knowlege, this gentleman has studied his subject with the view of laying down some general principles concerning it, and of dissipating those fears which the state of our paper circulation has partially occasioned. We must applaud the temper and philosophic calmness, as well as the acuteness, with which the discussion is uniformly conducted, though we may doubt the accuracy of some of his conclusions; and, while the tendency of his arguments is in favour of the banking interest, he has suggested a variety of considerations which deserve to be maturely weighed by the public at large. His inquiry embraces a wide field; and its merits, we presume, will elsewhere be appreciated with a more minute attention than our multifarious engagements will permit us to bestow on it.

Confidence is certainly essential to the very existence of commerce, and this position implies several kinds of paper credit: but this sort of paper credit, which prevails among commercial men, does not *necessarily* assume the properties of money, nor pass as a general circulating medium. Bills of exchange can have only a limited circulation. Notes *drawn to bearer on demand* are what we understand by the paper money of the country; and it is to be considered how far these notes are advantageous or disadvantageous to the community. Under the circumstances of an immense commerce, an enormous public debt, and the advanced price of all the necessaries of life, the gold of the country could not furnish an adequate circulating medium, and paper must be called in to supply the deficiency: but, in doing this, the danger is that what is employed as a subsidiary should become the chief and only medium; that gold should be pushed out of circulation; and that paper, which professes to be only a representative of gold, should be made at last only to represent itself. The national bank, and the subordinate London and provincial banks, are so many mints for coining the paper money; and

if

if it be not convertible into gold at the will of the holder, but is only exchangeable for other paper, the banking interest must possess peculiar advantages over the other members of the community. Merchants can thus be assisted with facility and safety; and, in proportion as they are aided in their speculations by the emission of this easy coinage, *opulence* will *appear* to be general, and the necessaries of life will increase in price. The issuers of paper have, at the same time, an opportunity of drawing the gold into their own coffers; and while the national bank withholds its payments in specie, the inferior banks are countenanced in giving only paper for paper. It may suit the advocates for paper credit, to represent gold as 'an unproductive article:' but it is an article of universal estimation, it has an intrinsic value, it requires no confidence, and it makes the holder absolutely rich. Paper, on the other hand, is merely a representative of something ideal: its only value rests on credit; and it may become worthless on the failure of those whose promise it bears. Ought the principal part of the money of a country, then, to be of this description? Ought gold to be monopolized? Or can it conduce to the general welfare, that it should be forcibly with-holden from circulation?

The conduct of the Bank in stopping its issues in specie may be justified on the ground of necessity; since it had been obliged to furnish the minister with much of its coin, to be sent in subsidies to foreign princes: but the plea of necessity does not obliterate the obligation to pay on demand; nor can it be argued that paper is the best of all money, because gold is not to be procured in exchange for it. Paper credit should be nothing more than paper *credit*, acceptable at option; and bank notes ought not to be a legal tender. Mr. Burke said of them that they were of value on Change, because they were of no value in Westminster Hall; and to give them a higher importance is to create a very artificial and perilous state of society.

From these remarks, it will be inferred that our sentiments do not uniformly coincide with those of Mr. Thornton: but we shall now endeavour to exhibit the prominent features of his publication, that our readers may judge for themselves.

The work is divided into eleven chapters. After a variety of introductory observations on commercial credit and commercial capital, on trade by barter, on bills of exchange, discountable notes, fictitious bills, bank notes, &c. Mr. Thornton proceeds to a consideration of the institution of the Bank of England, and to explain the reasons of the suspension of its cash payments. These, he maintains, were neither a too great issue of paper nor too great loans. On this subject, he observes that,

'The

The Bank of England is quite independent of the executive government. It has an interest, undoubtedly, (of the same kind with that of many private individuals,) in the maintenance of our financial as well as commercial credit. It is also in the habit of lending out a large portion of its ample funds on government securities of various kinds, a comparatively small part only, though a sum not small in itself, being lent to the merchants in the way of discount. The ground on which the bank lends so much to government is clearly that of mutual convenience, as well as long habit. It is the only lender in the country on a large scale; the government is the only borrower on a scale equally extended; and the two parties, like two wholesale traders in a town, the one the only great buyer, and the other the only great seller of the same article, naturally deal much with each other, and have comparatively small transactions with those who carry on only a more contracted business. The bank, moreover, in time of peace, is much benefited by lending to government. It naturally, therefore, continues those loans, during war, which it had been used to grant at all antecedent periods. It occasionally furnishes a considerable sum to the East India company. If, indeed, it lent more to the merchants during war, and less to the government, the difference would not be so great as might, perhaps, at first view be supposed. If, for instance, it furnished a smaller sum on the security of exchequer bills, that article might then be supposed to fall in price, or, in other words, to yield a higher and more tempting interest; and the bankers, in that case, would buy more exchequer bills, and would grant less aid to the merchants; they would, at least, in some degree, take up whichever trade the Bank of England should relinquish. The preference given by the bank to the government securities, is, therefore, no symptom of a want of independence in its directors: they are subject, in a much greater degree, to their own proprietors than to any administration. The strong manner in which the directors of the bank, at the time antecedent to the suspension of their cash payments, insisted on having four millions and a half paid up to them by the government—a payment which, though demanded at a very inconvenient time, was accordingly made—may be mentioned as one sufficiently striking mark of the independence of that company. There is, however, another much more important circumstance to be noticed, which is conclusive on this subject. The government of Great Britain is under little or no *temptation* either to dictate to the Bank of England, or to lean upon it in any way which is inconvenient or dangerous to the bank itself. The minister has been able to raise annually, without the smallest difficulty, by means of our funding system, the sum of no less than between twenty and thirty millions. The government, therefore, is always able to lessen, by a loan from the public, if it should be deemed necessary, the amount of its debt running with the bank. To suppose that bank notes are issued to excess, with a view to furnish means of lending money to the minister, is, in a high degree, unreasonable. The utmost sum which he could hope to gain in the way of loan from the bank, by means of an extraordinary issue of bank notes, could hardly be more than four

or five millions; and it is not easy to believe, that a government, which can raise at once twenty or thirty millions, will be likely, for the sake of only four or five millions (for the loan of which it must pay nearly the same interest as for a loan from the public), to derange the system, distress the credit, or endanger the safety of the Bank of England. This banking company differs in this most important point from every one of those national banks, which issue paper, on the continent.'—

'It may be mentioned, as an additional ground of confidence in the Bank of England, and as a circumstance of importance in many respects, that the numerous proprietors who choose the directors, and have the power of controlling them (a power of which they have prudently forborne to make any frequent use), are men whose general stake in the country far exceeds that particular one which they have in the stock of the Company.'—

'The proprietors of it themselves are not likely to approve of any dangerous extension even of their own paper; both they and the directors know the importance of confining the bank paper, generally speaking, within its accustomed limits, and must necessarily be supposed to prefer its credit, and the paper credit of the nation, to the comparatively trifling consideration of a small increase in their own dividends; an increase which would prove delusory, if it should arise from that extravagant issue of bank notes which would have the effect of depreciating all the circulating medium of the country, since it would thus raise upon the proprietors of bank stock, as well as on others, the price of all the articles of life.'—

'The bank itself is known to have experienced, at former times (as appears from the evidence of the directors given to parliament), very great fluctuations in its cash; and, in one period of returning peace and prosperity, a reduction of it below that which took place at the time of the late suspension of its cash payments: the amount of gold in the bank, at any one particular æra, is, perhaps, therefore, on the ground of this experience, not now considered by the commercial world as having all that importance which was given to it when the bank affairs were involved in greater mystery. It is perfectly well understood among all commercial men, that gold coin is not an article in which all payments (though it is so promised) are at any time intended really to be made; that no fund ever was or can be provided by the bank which shall be sufficient for such a purpose; and that gold coin is to be viewed chiefly as a standard by which all bills and paper money should have their value regulated as exactly as possible; and that the main, and, indeed, the only, point is to take all reasonable care that money shall in fact serve as that standard.

'This is the great maxim to be laid down on the subject of paper credit. Let it, then, be next considered what is necessary, in order sufficiently to secure that, whatever the circulating paper may be, gold shall be the standard to which the value of that paper shall conform itself. It is no doubt important, that there should be usually in the country a certain degree of interchange of gold for paper, for this is one of the means which will serve to fix the value of the latter.'

The suspension of cash-payments at the Bank is thus explained:

'A short time before the suspension of its cash payments, the gold in its coffers had been reduced materially through an unfavourable balance of trade. The exchange with Europe had, however, so far improved for some time preceding the suspension, as to have caused gold to begin again to flow into the country. When it was thus only beginning to return, the fear of an invasion took place, and it led to the sudden failure of some country banks in the north of England. Other parts felt the influence of the alarm, those in Scotland, in a great measure excepted, where, through long use, the confidence of the people, even in paper money of a guinea value, is so great (a circumstance to which the peculiar respectability of the Scotch banks has contributed), that the distress for gold was little felt in that part of the island. A great demand on the Bank of England for guineas was thus created, a demand which every one who can possess himself of a bank note is entitled to make by the very terms in which the note is expressed. In London, it is observable that much distress was beginning to arise, which was in its nature somewhat different from that in the country. In London, confidence in the Bank of England being high, and its notes maintaining their accustomed credit, its guineas were little called for with a view to the mere object of London payments. The guineas applied for by persons in London, were, generally speaking, on the account of people in the country. The distress arising in London, like that which took place in 1793, was a distress for notes of the Bank of England. So great was the demand for notes, that the interest of money, for a few days before the suspension of the payments of the bank, may be estimated (by calculating the price of exchequer bills, the best test that can be referred to, as well as by comparing the money price of stocks with their time price) to have been about sixteen or seventeen per cent. per ann. The bank, on this occasion, pursued, though only in a small degree, the path which a reader of Dr. Smith would consider him to prescribe, as in all cases the proper and effectual means of detaining or bringing back guineas. They lessened the number of their notes, which, having been for some years before near eleven millions, and having been reduced, for some time, to between nine and ten millions, were at this particular moment brought down to between eight and nine millions.'—

'Differences of opinion, undoubtedly, may exist as to the exact degree in which the notes of the Bank of England ought, under any given circumstances, to be diminished. It may be hoped, however, that at least one point has now been fully and completely established, namely, that there may be an error on the side of too much diminishing bank notes, as well as on the side of too much increasing them. There is an excessive limitation of them, as every one must admit, which will produce failures; failures must cause consternation, and consternation must lead to a run upon the bank for guineas. There must, in short, then, be some point at which the bank must stop

stop in respect to the reduction of its notes, however progressive may be the drain upon it for guineas.

'But if its notes are not lessened, or if even they are lessened, but are not entirely extinguished, it is then in the power of any one who can possess himself of a bank note to possess himself also of guineas, as long as the bank pays in guineas; and it will be found to follow, moreover, that the bank is thus rendered liable to be totally exhausted of guineas. I mean, that it is liable to be totally exhausted of them, however great their number may have been, if it determines to *maintain* even the *smallest* number of notes. By maintaining, that is to say, five millions, or two millions, or even one million, of notes, the bank cannot avoid being exhausted (supposing the alarm to rise high enough to do it) of even five millions, or ten millions, or, if it had them, of twenty or fifty millions of guineas. It will depend, in such case, on the degree of alarm, and not on the maintenance of the greater or of the less quantity of notes, whether the guineas shall be more or less rapidly called for from the bank; or, in other words, the bank may be as much exhausted of guineas if it maintains five millions of notes as if it maintains ten millions, provided the alarm is only the same in the one case as in the other. If, therefore, the maintenance of the five millions of notes is sure to produce more alarm than the maintenance of ten, then the maintenance of the larger quantity of notes will serve to diminish the demand for guineas, and the maintenance of the smaller number to increase it.'

We apprehend that this mode of reasoning will not be generally understood; and, when understood, that it is an argument which tends to prove the insecurity of the bank when it resumes its payments in specie. Indeed, it is admitted by Mr. T. that 'the Bank of England is placed, by the very nature of its institution, in a situation in which it may not be possible to avoid a temporary failure in the regularity of its cash payments.' According to Mr. T.'s mode of explaining the operation of exhaustion, this position may be true: but the Directors of the Bank must act unwisely if they allow of this process, or conduct their business under so palpable a disadvantage.

Mr. Thornton will not admit that the government was either the more remote or the more immediate cause of the suspension of the cash paymens at the bank; '*except* so far as the war in general, or *the particular circumstance of a remittance of a subsidy to the Emperor a short time before the event in question*, might be considered as affecting the balance of trade.' This is a mode of stating a material fact so as to conceal it, or to drop it out of the argument. How can the government be said to have neither immediately nor remotely diminished the power of the bank to pay in cash, when it is acknowleged in the same sentence to have drawn millions of its specie from

its coffers? We are not now debating the *policy* of the foreign subsidies paid during the war: but there can be little doubt that they materially operated in placing the Bank of England in a situation of pecuniary embarrassment. The parliament, in ordering the suspension of the cash payments, acted wisely under existing circumstances: but, from its peculiar and temporary situation, we should not deduce principles for general and permanent practice.

In the next chapter, the author treats of the balance of trade, and explains the manner in which gold sometimes leaves and at other times returns to the country:

'It may be laid down (he observes) as a general truth, that the commercial exports and imports of a state (that is to say, the exported and imported commodities for which one country receives an equivalent from another) naturally proportion themselves in some degree to each other; and that the balance of trade, therefore (by which is meant the difference between these commercial exports and imports), cannot continue for a very long time to be either highly favourable or highly unfavourable to a country. For that balance must be paid in bullion, or else must constitute a debt. To suppose a very great balance to be paid, year after year, in bullion, is to assume such a diminution of bullion in one country, and such an accumulation of it in another, as are not easy to be imagined: it may even be questioned whether the commercial prosperity of a state does not tend, on the whole, to reduce, rather than augment, the quantity of gold in use, through that extension of paper credit to which it leads.'—

Mr. T. adduces the following fact to account for the want of gold which has been lately experienced in Europe:

'Bullion to a very large amount was retained in the Spanish settlements, during the latter period of the war, through the fear of capture; and perhaps, therefore, we might trace in part the want of gold, of which we have complained, to those successful exertions in watching the ports of the enemy which have been made by the British navy.'

Much truth is contained in, and much solid satisfaction may be derived from, the author's view of the energies of our country: but he cannot, with justice, represent the present system of paper credit as *the old and accustomed* one:

'Undoubtedly, circumstances of so great and extraordinary a nature may arise as to prevent the return of gold at an early or assignable period. It may, however, be safely affirmed, that when the main sources of a country's wealth are unimpaired; when its population, its industry, its manufacturing and trading capital, its general commerce, its credit, its colonial possessions, its political strength and independence, its laws and constitution remain; and when, moreover, its paper is confined within its accustomed bounds; the

the absence of its gold, more especially if it be the obvious consequence of one or more unfavourable seasons, is an evil which is likely neither to be durable, nor in any respect very important. Under such circumstances, to alter materially the *old and accustomed system* of paper credit, and to restrain in any very extraordinary degree the issues of paper of more responsible banks, is to deprive a country of those means of recovering itself which it naturally possesses.'

Chapter 6. contains a farther justification of the conduct of the Bank Directors; and chapter 7. discusses the advantages and disadvantages of country banks.—These banks are stated to have amounted, in 1797, to 353; in 1799, to 366; and in 1800, to 386. The multiplication of these establishments Mr. T. regards as indications of the prosperity of the country, and as naturally belonging to commercial communities.—To a certain degree they are manifest accommodations: but the prospect of gain which they hold out, and the aid which they afford to money speculations, have induced a greater increase of them than the wants of the country required, and a more extensive effect than is consistent with its prosperity. By the stoppage of the issue of specie at the grand master bank, the notes of the subordinate banks have obtained importance. When paper could only be exchanged for paper, the holders of country notes were not perhaps very eager to take them to the bank which issued them, and the bank itself felt a peculiar confidence and security *.—Of the advantages resulting to the public from these institutions, Mr. T. thus speaks:

'That country banks have, in a variety of respects, been highly advantageous, can scarcely admit of a doubt. They have afforded an accommodation to many descriptions of persons; but more especially to those who are engaged in commerce. They may be regarded as an effect of that division of labour which naturally takes place in every opulent country. The receipts and the payments of money are now no longer conducted at home, even by the middling trader, but are become a separate branch of business in the hands of bankers. It was to be expected that they to whom this employment has been transferred would find means of abridging labour, and of

* Mr. T.'s remark on this head merits notice: 'When payments were currently made in gold, the country banks were subject to sudden demands for cash through temporary alarms among the holders of their notes. From these they have lately been more exempt, in consequence of no other option having been given to those who demanded payment of country bank paper, than that of receiving Bank of England notes in return. Since the suspension of the cash payments of the bank, credit has been less subject to interruption, and the quantity both of country paper and of Bank of England notes has probably been less variable; or, if the fluctuations of the latter have been as considerable as before, they may have more nearly corresponded with the variations in the wants of the public.'

sparing the use of coin, the most expensive circulating medium. By their skill in attaining these objects, they transact an important portion of the business of the trader at an expence far inferior to that which he must incur were he to conduct it by his own clerks; and they derive a profit to themselves, which, no less than the saving to the customer, may be regarded as clear gain to the kingdom.

'Country banks are also useful by furnishing to many persons the means of laying out at interest, and in a safe manner, such money as they may have to spare.'

It is farther observed that these banks, by the issue of their paper, have added to the productive capital of the country; and so far is Mr. T. from considering the loans made to the farmers as an evil, that he contemplates them in the light of advantages. We shall allow him to deliver his sentiments on this subject in his own words:

'The capital so furnished to the farmers may possibly have induced some of them, at certain times, to keep in hand a larger quantity of grain than they would otherwise have found it convenient to hold. We know, however, that the general stock of grain in the autumn of 1800 was particularly low. Since, therefore, but a small part of the capital of the farmers, whether borrowed or their own, was then vested in grain, the principal share would probably be laid out on their land, and would increase its produce; for, unquestionably, the value of a crop obtained from a farm depends chiefly on the sum employed in cultivation and improvement. Country bank notes have thus added to the general supply of grain; and, by doing so, have contributed to prevent a rise in its price: they have, probably, in this manner, afforded much more than a compensation for any temporary advance in price to which they may have given occasion by enabling farmers to keep a larger quantity in hand. The very possession of a large quantity in hand is to be considered as, in general, a benefit rather than a disadvantage; for it is our chief security against scarcity, and, consequently, also against dearness.'

On a part of this extract, it may be proper to remark that, if farms could not be cultivated for want of an adequate capital, the accommodation of country bankers to farmers might have augmented the supply of grain: but the high prices conferred on farmers a degree of affluence which precluded the necessity of pecuniary aid to forward improvements. The recourse to bankers, therefore, must have been for the purpose of speculation; and though, in times of scarcity, he who maintains a stock performs as useful a part to the community as he who is forward to sell, yet, when this retention is conducted on a selfish system and carried to excess, prices advance higher than the real circumstances of the case will warrant.

It is also mentioned by Mr. Thornton, as not a trifling recommendation of the use of paper, that the public draws a large yearly revenue from the tax imposed on bills and notes.

Had

Had our paper credit no other recommendation than this, we should deem it intitled to very slender notice.—With all Mr. T.'s partiality to banks, however, he allows that some solid objections may be urged against the banking system in the country. The first which he mentions is 'the tendency of these banks to produce, occasionally, a general failure of paper credit, and with it a derangement and suspension of commerce, as well as intermission of manufacturing labour.' The other evil he thus states:

'The multiplication of country banks issuing small notes to bearer on demand, by occasioning a great and permanent diminution in our circulating coin, serves to increase the danger, lest the standard by which the value of our paper is intended to be at all times regulated should occasionally not be maintained.

'The evils of a great depreciation of paper currency are considerable. In proportion as the article which forms the current payment for goods drops in value, the current price of goods rises. If the labourer receives only the same nominal wages as before the depreciation took place, he is underpaid. Antecedent pecuniary contracts, though nominally, and, perhaps, legally fulfilled, are not performed with due equity. It is true, that the general stock of wealth in the country may remain nearly the same; and it is possible that the circulating paper may be restored to its full value when the period of the particular difficulty shall have passed by. Some degree, however, of unfairness and inequality will, in the mean time, have been produced, and much pressure may have been felt by the lower classes of people, whose wages are seldom raised until some time after the occasion for a rise has begun to exist.'

In the eighth chapter, Mr. T. considers the influence of an enlarged emission of paper in raising the price of commodities, and its operation in producing an excess of the market price above the mint price.

Chapters 9. and 10. explain the conduct of the Bank of England, and are designed to shew why it is necessary that it should be left to put its own limits on the quantity of its paper. We transcribe the concluding paragraph:

'To limit the total amount of paper issued, and to resort for this purpose, whenever the temptation to borrow is strong, to some effectual principle of restriction; in no case, however, materially to diminish the sum in circulation, but to let it vibrate only within certain limits; to afford a slow and cautious extension of it, as the general trade of the kingdom enlarges itself; to allow of some special, though temporary, increase in the event of any extraordinary alarm or difficulty, as the best means of preventing a great demand at home for guineas; and to lean to the side of diminution, in the case of gold going abroad, and of the general exchanges continuing long unfavourable; this seems to be the true policy of the directors of an institution circumstanced like that of the Bank of England.

To suffer either the solicitations of merchants, or the wishes of government, to determine the measure of the bank issues, is unquestionably to adopt a very false principle of conduct.'

The last chapter treats of the influence of paper credit on the price of commodities. So little is Mr. Thornton disposed to admit that an increase of paper has caused the high prices, that he reverses the proposition, and would consider the high prices as the cause, and the increase of paper as the effect. Though we have protracted this article to an unusual length, we must not exclude his remarks on this subject:

'That the popular opinion which was lately entertained of the great influence of paper credit in raising the price not only of commodities in general, but of provisions in particular, had no just foundation, is a position which admits of easy proof.'—

'The following facts furnish a convincing proof that the late high prices of corn have not been owing to the enlargement of Bank of England paper.

'By the account which the bank rendered to Parliament, it appears, that the amount of Bank of England notes was, on the 25th of February, 1795, 13,539,160*l.* In the three months immediately following the 25th of February, 1795, the average price of wheat, in the London corn-market, was about 57*s.* per quarter.

'By the same bank account, it appears, that the amount of Bank of England notes was, on the 25th of February, 1796, 11,030,116*l.* In the three months immediately following the 25th of February, 1796, the average price of wheat, in the London corn-market, was about 94*s.* per quarter.

'Thus wheat bore a comparatively low price when the amount of bank notes in circulation was greater; and a comparatively high price when their amount was smaller. It bore the moderate price of 57*s.* per quarter, at a time when the amount of Bank of England notes was full as considerable (allowing for about two millions of 1*l.* and 2*l.* notes) as it is known to have been at any period.

'Paper credit may be considered as tending, in some respects, to reduce the price of commodities. It was compared, in a former chapter, to a cheap species of machinery, which is substituted in the place of a dear one; and it is obvious, that, in proportion as any instrument of manufactures or commerce is less expensive, the articles which it contributes to produce may be afforded at a lower rate.

'Paper credit, also, promotes general cheapness, by sparing much expence and trouble in weighing, counting, and transporting, money; and by thus facilitating more particularly the larger transactions of the merchant.'

We acknowlege the ability of Mr. T. but we do not feel the force of this mode of reasoning. If we regard merely the quantity of paper issued by the Bank of England, we take but a partial view of the subject:—the subordinate banks may have enlarged their quantity in the same proportion. Besides,

Besides, we do not perceive how the cheapness of the commodity, on which a note is drawn, operates like a piece of machinery which abridges labour. Our experience of the power of paper in supplying the want of gold has taught us a valuable lesson: but there is imminent danger in placing too much confidence in it, or in carrying this practice to excess. Mo-y.

ART. V. *A Dissertation on the Construction and Properties of Arches.* By G. Atwood, Esq. F.R.S. 4to. pp. 51. and 7 Plates. 7s. 6d. Egerton. 1801.

THE proposal for constructing a magnificent iron-bridge of one arch over the Thames having excited much interest and discussion, and no specific plan of construction having been adopted, it was natural to suppose that ingenious and scientific men would direct their attention to that subject. Dr. Hutton has already presented the fruit of his researches to the public; and in his investigations, he has argued on the principle, adopted also by Emerson, according to which an arch is supposed to consist of uniform compacted materials, and to possess equal strength when on each point of it there is a vertical pressure, sufficient to keep the arch *in equilibrio.* In this theory, all that is essentially required to be known is included in the determination of these two propositions: 1. from the intrados, or inner boundary of the arch, to determine the extrados, or outer boundary; and 2. from the extrados, to determine the intrados so that the vertical pressure on each point of the arch shall keep it *in equilibrio*:—which latter is the most important, since the outer boundary, along which the road runs, must always be a right line, or nearly so.

The author of the present treatise has considered the subject under another point of view, and supposes the bridge to be composed of parts having the form of wedges: consequently, the properties of the arch are made to depend on those of the wedge.—Two principal problems are discussed by Mr. Atwood. In the first, it is proposed to adjust the weights of the section of the arch, to the angles contained by the sides of the section: in the second, to adjust the angles made by the sides of the wedges to the weights of the wedges, supposed to be given quantities. These problems are solved geometrically, with great perspicuity and elegance; and rules are investigated for settling the equilibrium of arches, conformably to each of the two conditions above mentioned.

Several curious consequences follow from the result of Mr. A.'s investigations; first, that, 'if the materials of which an arch is constructed were perfectly hard and rigid, so as not to be

be liable to the smallest change in their form, and the abutments were immoveably fixed, an arch, when the sections have been adjusted, although but little deviating from a right line, would be equally secure, in respect to equilibrium, with a semicircular, or any other arch;'—and, secondly, (within which consequence the former is in fact included,) that the *curve line*, which passes through the bases, may be of any form without affecting the equilibrium established on the supposition that the arch is formed of wedges.—Here is to be noted a remarkable difference between the results obtained by Dr. Hutton and by Mr. Atwood. According to the theory and deductions of the former, if the exterior curve and superincumbent weight be given, then the interior curve is a determinate curve: but, according to the theory and deductions of Mr. A. whatever be the exterior curve and superincumbent weights, the interior curve needs not be of this nor of that form, but may be varied by varying the angles of the wedges that compose the arch. It is not surprising, however, (for it might indeed have been predicted,) that the two results are very dissimilar, because the theories to which they belong are widely different. In one, the parts of the arch are supposed to be so compacted by the means of cement *, that the arch is in the same state as if composed of an uniform and equally coherent substance; and, in this case, it is the *vertical pressure* or weight that is every where to be considered, in order to answer the conditions of equilibration. In Mr. Atwood's theory, on the contrary, the parts of the arch do not cohere by means of cement, but are joined the one to the other by the balancing powers of pressure downwards, and of resistance.

In practice, the choice of the theory which is to be adopted must depend partly, it should seem, on the size and hardness of the materials of which the arch is to be composed. If, for instance, it be made of bricks cemented with mortar, then Dr. Hutton's theory seems most proper to be adopted: but Mr. Atwood's appears to be the true theory when an arch is made of large stone wedges, put together with the intervention of scarcely any cement.

Admitting Mr. Atwood's theory, however, we meet with a practical difficulty which we think it is not easy to surmount.

---

* Emerson, however, (p. 148. Miscellanies,) intends his reasoning to apply to an arch formed of parts and not cohering: for he says, "here it is supposed that the stones have no cohesion with one another, but are entirely sustained by the figure of the arch," &c.—On this subject we would speak with caution: but, if we be right in certain opinions not yet matured, Mr. Atwood's and Emerson's principle, if applied under like circumstances, will lead to the same conclusions.

According to that system, if we assume the curve of the road-way to be horizontal, or nearly so,—and the weights of the sections of the arch, together with the weights of the wall superincumbent on the sections, to be given quantities,—then the magnitudes of the angles contained by the sides of the sections may be determined. Now, here, the weights of the wall superincumbent on the sections are supposed to be incorporated (if we may use such an expression) with the weights of the sections themselves: but, in practice, the difficulty will be to dispose and apply the weight of the wall on the section, so that the effect should be the same as if that weight really existed in the section by its density being adequately increased.—In the mathematical solution, is not the weight of the wall superincumbent supposed to be applied at the centre of Gravity; and what is to be the form of the upper part of the section or wedge, in order that the effect may be nearly the same as if the weight were applied to the centre of Gravity? Of this objection we find no satisfactory solution in the treatise before us: yet the question must have occurred to the author; and he seems to touch on it, in the following passage of his preface:

'In the case when the arch is designed to support an horizontal plane or road, on which heavy weights are to be sustained, the intermediate space between the arch and the horizontal road way, ought to be filled up in such a manner, as not only to afford the support required, but also to add to the strength and security of the entire fabric. If this should be effected by columns erected on the arch, and acting on the several sections by their weight in a direction perpendicular to the horizon, rules are given in the following pages for establishing the equilibrium by adjusting the angles of the sections to their several weights, including the weights of the columns superincumbent, so that the pressure on the sides of each section may be a counterpoise to its weight, taking into account the place it occupies in the arch. But in structures of this description, the columns of masonry which are erected upon the arches of a bridge, as a support to the road way, cannot be expected to act on the sections of an arch according to the exact proportions required, which are assumed as data in the geometrical propositions, for determining the equilibration, as these proportions would probably be altered either by the differences of specific gravity which may occasionally be found in the materials used, or by differences in the cohesive force, which would prevent the columns from settling and pressing on the several parts of the arch with their full weights, such as the theory requires. Perpendicular columns of iron would not be liable to this objection: by adopting supports of this description, the weights of the columns, added to the weight of the road, would press on the interior arch, to be sustained in equilibrio, by adjusting the angles of the sections to the superincumbent weight, according to the rules determined in the pages

pages which follow. But perhaps the space between the interior arch and the road might be more effectually filled up, by other arches terminated by circular arcs, drawn from centres situated in the vertical line which bisects the entire arch, so as to become united in the highest or middle wedge. The sections of these arches may be adjusted, by the rules here given, so as to become distinct arches of equilibration, which, when united, will constitute a single arch of equilibration, similar in form to that which is expressed in the plan of an iron bridge, of one arch, which has been proposed to be erected over the river Thames *, as is represented in the engraving inserted in the Third Report of the Committee of the House of Commons, for the farther Improvement of the Port of London.'

We do not insist on the validity of the above objection, because our practical knowlege is not of great extent; perhaps the difficulty may be easily removed:—we speak with diffidence on this head.

The present disquisition deserves notice for its perspicuity and originality. With regard to the former point, any one who moderately understands plain geometry and statics may soon, and easily, make himself acquainted with its contents: with respect to its novelty, if any author has preceded Mr. A. in his view of the subject, it is unknown to us; and at present, therefore, we consider him as having an exclusive claim to whatever is clearly conceived, or logically deduced, or ingeniously suggested, in this Dissertation.

R.W

ART. VI. *The Miscellaneous Works of Oliver Goldsmith*, M. B. A New Edition. To which is prefixed some Account of his Life and Writings. 8vo. 4 Vols. 1l. 16s. Boards. Johnson, &c. 1801.

WE believe that the present is the first complete edition of Dr. Goldsmith's Miscellaneous Works that has been given to the public; and we think that the scattered productions of very few modern writers, of this country, better merited preservation, and the benefits of editorial improvement: since Dr. G., to speak in the words of the preface, deserves by the peculiar graces of his style (both in prose and rhyme) to be esteemed as a classic in our language.—With any account of these productions we shall not now detain our readers, because on former occasions they came in review before us: but we must observe that the collection of essays and prefaces here introduced is very numerous, and presents to our view several pieces which we did not before know to have proceeded from the pen of this writer. Of their authenticity, however, we by no

---

' * Designed by Messrs. Telford and Douglass.'

 means

means intend to express a doubt, since we think that they bear internal marks of being genuine; and we are aware that, in addition to his acknowleged performances, this author inserted several of his productions in the periodical works of the time. We must now confine our attention to the account of the life; which, according to the editor, 'is composed from the information of persons, who were intimate with the Poet at an early period, and who were honoured with a continuance of his friendship till the time when the world was deprived of this fascinating writer. Their names, were the editor at liberty to mention them, would immediately dispel all doubts as to the authenticity of the memoirs, and reflect distinguished credit on the publication.'

This biographical sketch, for it certainly does not deserve the character of a finished performance, is written with plainness and simplicity; and it introduces to our notice several curious particulars of which we were ignorant, though far from being unacquainted with the subject of them.—"The life of a scholar," Dr. Goldsmith had himself observed in his account of Parnell, "seldom abounds with adventures;" his own life, however, was in opposition to the remark, since the events of it were various and checquered.

Of Dr. G.'s early life and character, and of some remarkable adventures at school and at college, an entertaining narrative was furnished by his eldest sister, Catharine, wife of Daniel Hodson, Esq. from which we shall make a considerable extract; because the anecdotes which it contains are new and amusing, and prove that the author, at an early period, was the same variable and eccentric being which in more advanced life he was universally known to be:

'The Rev. Charles Goldsmith is allowed by all that knew him, to have been faithfully represented by his son in the character of the Village Preacher in his poem. He had seven children, viz. five sons and two daughters. Of his eldest son the Rev. Henry Goldsmith, to whom his brother dedicated his Traveller, their father had formed the most sanguine hopes, as he had distinguished himself both at school and at college, but he unfortunately married at the early age of nineteen; which confined him to a curacy, and prevented his rising to preferment in the church.

'Oliver was his second son and born very unexpectedly after an interval of seven years from the birth of the former child, and the liberal education which their father was then bestowing on his eldest son bearing hard upon his small income, he could only propose to bring up Oliver to some mercantile employment.

'With this view he was instructed in reading, writing, and arithmetic, by a school-master in his father's village, who had been a quarter-master in the army in Queen Anne's wars, in that detachment

ment which was sent to Spain: having travelled over a considerable part of Europe and being of a very romantic turn, he used to entertain Oliver with his adventures; and the impressions these made on his scholar were believed by the family to have given him that wandering and unsettled turn which so much appeared in his future life.

'Oliver, however, was from his earliest infancy very different from other children, subject to particular humours, for the most part uncommonly serious and reserved, but when in gay spirits none ever so agreeable as he;* and he began at so early a period to shew signs of genius that he quickly engaged the notice of all the friends of the family, many of whom were in the church. At the age of seven or eight he discovered a natural turn for rhyming, and often amused his father and his friends with early poetical attempts. When he could scarcely write legibly, he was always scribbling verses which he burnt as he wrote them.

'Observing his fondness for books and learning, his mother, with whom he was always a favourite, pleaded with his father to give him a liberal education: but his own narrow income, the expence attending the educating of his eldest son, and his numerous family, were strong objections. Oliver, in the mean time, was placed under the Rev. Mr. Griffin, then school-master of Elphin, and was received into the house of his father's brother, John Goldsmith, Esq. of Ballyoughter near that town, who with his family considered him as a prodigy for his age, and have handed down the following instance of his early wit.

'A large company of young people of both sexes were assembled one evening at his uncle's, and Oliver then but nine years old, was required to dance a hornpipe, a youth playing to them at the same time on a fiddle. Being but newly recovered from the small-pox, by which he was much disfigured, and his figure being short and thick, the musician very archly as he supposed, compared him to Æsop dancing; and still harping on this idea which he conceived to be very bright, our conceited gentleman had suddenly the laugh turned against him, by Oliver's stopping short in the dance with this retort:—

'Our herald hath proclaim'd this saying,
See Æsop dancing, and his monkey playing.

'This smart reply decided his fortune, for from that time it was determined to send him to the University, and some of the relations, who were respectable clergymen, kindly offered to contribute

---

'* Mrs. Hodson has in this slight sketch, probably without knowing it, pourtrayed every feature of the little Edwin in Beattie's celebrated poem of the Minstrel:

——————He was no vulgar boy,
Deep thought oft seem'd to fix his infant eye,
Dainties he heeded not, nor gaud, nor toy,
Save one short pipe of rudest minstrelsie.
Silent when glad, affectionate yet shy,
And now his look was most demurely sad,
And now he laugh'd aloud, yet knew not why.'

towards

towards the expence, particularly the Rev. Thomas Contarine, who had married Oliver's aunt, a gentleman of distinguished learning and good preferment. *

'With this view he was removed to the school of Athlone about five miles from his father's house, and was for about two years there under the Rev. Mr. Campbel, who had the character of being an ingenious master; but he being obliged to resign the school for want of health, Oliver was sent to the Rev. Patrick Hughes, at Edgeworthstown, in the county of Longford, where he was fitted for the University. †

'In his last journey to this school, he had an adventure which is thought to have suggested the plot of his Comedy, 'The Mistakes of a Night.'

'Some friend had given him a guinea, and in his way to Edgeworthstown, which is about twenty miles from his father's house, he had diverted himself the whole day by viewing the gentlemen's seats on the road, until at the fall of night, he found himself in a small town named Ardagh. Here he inquired for the best house in the place, meaning an inn, but being understood too literally he was shown to the house of a private gentleman, where calling for somebody to take his horse, and lead him to the stable, he alighted and was shown into the parlour, being supposed to be a guest come to visit the master, whom he found sitting by a good fire. This gentleman immediately discovered Oliver's mistake; and being a man of humour, and also learning from him the name of his father, who happened to be his acquaintance, he encouraged his deception. Oliver accordingly called about him, ordered a good supper, and generously invited the master, his wife and daughters to partake of it; treated them with a bottle or two of wine, and at going to bed, ordered a hot cake to be prepared for his breakfast: nor was it till at his departure, when he called for the bill, that he found he had been hospitably entertained in a private family.

'In the June following 1744, Oliver was sent to Dublin College, and entered under the Rev. Mr. Wilder, one of the fellows, to whom, as he was the son of a neighbouring gentleman, the young pupil was particularly recommended. But he was a man of harsh temper and violent passions, and Oliver no less thoughtless and unguarded, so that they very soon disagreed. Oliver formed some acquaintance in the city of Dublin, and was indiscreet enough to invite company of both sexes to partake of a supper and a dance in his rooms. This circumstance, unfortunately for our poet, came to the ears of his tutor, who abruptly entered in the midst of all their gaiety, which he soon extinguished; for he not only proceeded to the

---

'* The Rev. Mr. Greene also liberally assisted, as Dr. Goldsmith used to relate, in this beneficent purpose.'

'† From the last master he profited more than from either of the others, as he conversed with him on a footing very different from that of master and scholar. This circumstance Dr. Goldsmith always mentioned with respect and gratitude.'

highest

highest excess of personal abuse, but concluded with manual chastisement before all the company.

'The disgrace attending this cruel treatment drove the poor lad into despair, and he determined never more to see any of his friends, but to remove to some other country, where totally unknown, he might seek his fortune. He accordingly disposed of his books and clothes, and left the college, but loitered about in Dublin till he had only a shilling left in his pocket, when he set out on his travels. His intention was to go on ship-board at Cork, for some other country, he knew not whither.

'On this shilling he supported himself, as he affirmed, for three days, and then parting by degrees with the clothes off his back, was reduced to such extremity of famine, that, after fasting twenty-four hours, he thought a handful of grey peas, given him by a girl at a wake, the most comfortable repast he ever made. By this time he began to be sensible of his folly, and like the prodigal son desirous of returning to his indulgent father. From his father's house he now was not so distant but that he contrived to send to his brother, who came to him, clothed and carried him back to college, where he effected something of a reconciliation with his tutor, but, as may easily be imagined, they were never afterwards on cordial terms.

'Soon after this event his worthy father died, of whom he gives an account in the Citizen of the World, under the character of the man in black. His good uncle Contarine endeavoured to supply his loss, and wished him to prepare for holy orders. But for the clerical profession he had no liking, having always a strong inclination for visiting foreign countries; and when he did apply to the bishop he was rejected because he was too young *. His uncle however procured him the office of private tutor in the family of a neighbouring gentleman, where he continued about a year: but being averse to the necessary confinement he quitted his friends, and having saved about thirty pounds, and procured a good horse, he left the country.

'His friends, after an absence of six weeks, without having heard what had become of him, concluded he had quitted the kingdom; when he suddenly returned to his mother's house without a penny, upon a poor little horse not worth twenty shillings, which he called Fiddle-Back. His mother, as might be expected, was highly offended, but his brothers and sisters had contrived to meet him there, and at length effected a reconciliation.

'Being required to account for the loss of his money and linen, and the horse on which he had departed, he told them that he had been at Cork, where he had sold his horse, and paid for his passage for America, to a captain of a ship. But the winds proving contrary for three weeks, he had amused himself by seeing every thing curious in and about that city, and on the day the wind proved fair,

---

'* The tradition in the diocese of Elphin is, that he was rejected by bishop Synge, to whom he offered himself a candidate, either because he had neglected the professional studies, or from a (perhaps exaggerated) report of irregularities at college.'

'† 'Two guineas in Irish currency is 2l. 5s. 6d.'

being

being engaged with a party in an excursion into the country, his friend, the captain, had set sail without him. He continued in Cork till he had only two guineas left, out of which he paid forty shillings for Fiddle-Back, and when he wished to return home he had only the remaining crown * in his pocket. Although this was rather too little for a journey of a hundred and twenty miles, he had intended to visit, on the road not far from Cork, a dear friend he had known in college, who had often pressed him to spend a summer at his house, and on whose assistance he depended for supplies. In this expectation he had given half his little stock to a poor woman in his way, who had solicited relief for herself and eight children, their father having been seized for rent and thrown into jail.

'He found his friend just recovering from a severe illness: who received him in his cap and slippers, but expressed the greatest joy to see him, and eagerly inquired what agreeable occasion had so happily brought him into that country. Oliver, delighted to think his distresses were now at an end, concealed no part of them from his host; to gratify his fine feelings and to excite his sympathy, he represented in the strongest terms not only his present destitute condition, but the little prospect he had of returning home, on account of having so highly disobliged his family, and observed, that it must be a work of time, and of long intercession, before he could again expect to be received into favour. The melancholy silence with which his affecting tale was heard he attributed to the tenderest compassion; and the frequent sighs of his friend, as he walked about rubbing his hands, and deeply lost in thought, consoled him under the dismal recital. The uncommon length of his friend's silence enabled him to renew the subject, and to expatiate on his hopeless situation, till it was at length terminated by his host's observing very drily, how inconvenient it was for him to receive company in his present state of weakness; that he had no provision in the house for a healthy person; he had nothing but slops and milk diet for himself; of which, if he pleased, Mr. Goldsmith might partake, but he feared it would not soon be got ready. This was dismal news to our hungry traveller, who, alas! had fasted the whole day, and it was not till six o'clock, when an old woman appeared and spread the table, on which she laid a small bowl of sagoe for her master, and a porringer of sour milk, with a piece of brown bread for his guest. This being soon dispatched, the invalid pleaded the necessity of going early to bed, and left poor Oliver to his own meditations.

'In the morning, consulting with his friend on his unfortunate situation, he advised him to hasten home without loss of time, as his family must be highly offended at his absence. On this Oliver ventured to solicit the loan of a guinea for the support of himself and his horse on the road. Here again his host gravely advised him against running in debt, and urged that his own illness had deprived him of all his cash. But, my dear friend, said he, you may sell your horse for money sufficient to bear your charges, and I will fur-

'* Two guineas in Irish currency is 2l. 5s. 6d.'

nish you with another for the journey. When Oliver desired him to produce this steed, he drew from under a bed an oaken staff. At which the poor youth was so provoked, that he was going to apply it to his pate, when a loud knocking at the gate gave notice of the approach of a visitant. This was a neighbouring gentleman of a very engaging aspect; to whom, as if nothing had happened, our traveller was presented as the very ingenious young friend who had been mentioned to him with such high encomiums while they were at college.

'The visit concluded with an invitation of the two friends to dine at that gentleman's house on the morrow. To this Oliver at first reluctantly consented; but as he really stood in want of a dinner, at length he went, and was highly pleased with the entertainment. In the evening, when they were about to return, their host, who had observed some glances which shewed all was not right between the two fellow collegians, insisted that Mr. Goldsmith should stay and spend some days at his house; who at parting desired the other would take care of the horse he had so kindly offered him, and not surfeit his friends with their milk diet. To this our gentleman only replied with a sneer, and left Oliver to tell all the circumstances of his treatment; at which his generous host laughed heartily, and assured him it agreed with his neighbour's general character.

'Here our wanderer was most hospitably entertained, and kindly urged to prolong his stay, with a liberal offer to be supplied with whatever money he should want, and a man and horse to attend him home. Oliver begged leave to depart at the end of three days; which were most agreeably spent in the company of this worthy gentleman and two beautiful daughters, who did all in their power to entertain and divert him. At his departure, he refused the offer of the servant and the horse, and only accepted the loan of three half guineas.

'And now, dear mother, he concluded, after having struggled so hard to come home to you, I wonder you are not more rejoiced to see me.—She and all present expressed their joy at his return, and enjoined him to transmit the most early and grateful acknowledgments to his kind benefactor.'

By the assistance of his Uncle Contarine, to whose persevering friendship he always acknowleged himself greatly obliged, and for whom he ever expressed the highest respect, Goldsmith removed, about the year 1752, from Ireland to Edinburgh, for the purpose of studying physic.

'Among many instances which might be mentioned of his heedlessness and absence at this period, the following may be recorded. Goldsmith, having on his arrival from Leith at Edinburgh employed a cawdy or porter to take his luggage, set off in search of a lodging; which having taken, and told the cawdy to leave his portmanteau, he sallied forth to take a view of the city without having inquired the name of his landlady or that of the street in which she lived. Having wandered about till it was dark, he recollected his omission when it was too late to remedy it, and, had he not fortunately met with the porter whom he had engaged in the morning, he might probably have remained all night in the street.

'With this landlady he had agreed not only for lodging but board; but as the latter was very scantily supplied, of which he used to give a very ludicrous account, namely, that she made a leg of mutton, dished up in different modes, serve them for a week, a dish of broth being made from the bones on the seventh day, he found it expedient to remove to a lodging where were other students of medicine, whom he frequently entertained with his songs and stories. These endeavours to amuse, it must be confessed, were, however, from an inordinate desire of gaining applause, and of setting the table in a roar, too often blended with grimace and buffoonery, from which defects, notwithstanding he was afterwards introduced into the politest company, his conversation was never wholly exempt.'

From Edinburgh he proceeded to Leyden; where he resided about a year, and studied chemistry under Gaubius (erroneously printed *Gambius*), and anatomy under Albinus. In this situation, he suffered many vicissitudes of fortune; for here he shewed himself addicted to gaming, a practice which occasioned all the future hardships that he underwent, and in the fatal consequences of which originated those deviations from integrity and honour that sullied his moral character. On leaving Leyden, he made the tour of a great part of Europe on foot, and met with many adventures which he has related in his Vicar of Wakefield; and in the year 1756, he arrived in London. We extract the account of him at this period, which was furnished by a very respectable physician, with whom he had been intimate at Edinburgh:

"From the time of Goldsmith's leaving Edinburgh in the year 1754, I never saw him till the year 1756, when I was in London attending the hospitals and lectures. Early in January, he called upon me one morning before I was up; and, on my entering the room, I recognised my old acquaintance dressed in a rusty full trimmed black suit, with his pockets full of papers, which instantly reminded me of the poet in Garrick's farce of Lethe. After we had finished our breakfast, he drew from his pocket part of a tragedy, which he said he had brought for my correction; in vain I pleaded inability, when he began to read; and every part, on which I expressed a doubt as to the propriety, was immediately blotted out. I then more earnestly pressed him not to trust to my judgment, but to the opinion of persons better qualified to decide on dramatic compositions, on which he told me that he had submitted his production, so far as he had written, to Mr. Richardson, the author of Clarissa; on which I peremptorily declined offering another criticism on the performance. The name and subject of the tragedy have unfortunately escaped my memory, neither do I recollect with exactness how much he had written, though I am inclined to believe that he had not completed the third act: I never heard whether he afterwards finished it. In this visit I remember his relating a strange Quixotic scheme he had in contemplation of going to decipher the inscriptions on the *written mountains*, though he was altogether ignorant of Arabic, or the

language in which they might be supposed to be written. The salary of 300l. per annum which had been left for the purpose was the temptation!"

In London, Goldsmith became acquainted and associated with literary characters of the first eminence; and, could he have added common prudence to his other qualities, he might have passed a happy and respectable life, since the popularity of his writings relieved him from the pressure of poverty: but no supplies, however ample, were sufficient to meet those demands which were occasioned by his inordinate love of play, and his other irregularities.—We are informed that

'Dr. Johnson took every opportunity that presented itself of praising the talents and genius of our author. Goldsmith's medical friend, by whose valuable and interesting communications we have been much obliged, has furnished us with the following anecdote:

"I was dining at Sir Joshua Reynolds's, August 7, 1773, where, amongst other company, were the Archbishop of Tuam and Mr. (now Lord) Eliot; when, the latter making use of some sarcastical reflections on Goldsmith, Johnson broke out warmly in his defence, and, in the course of a spirited eulogium, said, 'Is there a man, Sir, now who can pen an essay with such ease and elegance as Goldsmith"?'

In the very amusing account of our great lexicographer with which the late Mr. Boswell furnished the world, we find many sentiments of Dr. Johnson highly honourable to the talents, and some creditable to the character, of our poet. These passages are with much propriety introduced into the present work; and, in addition to them, we are furnished with anecdotes communicated by Dr. Percy, Bishop of Dromore.

On the whole, we have perused the biographical part of this first volume with real satisfaction, and can recommend it to the attention of our readers as replete with curious and entertaining matter.

With regard to the arrangement of Goldsmith's compositions;—Vol. I. contains his Vicar of Wakefield, and his inquiry into the present state of polite learning. In the second, are inserted his poems and plays. In the *Hermit*, we find the following stanza introduced, which was communicated by Richard Archdall, Esq., who received it from the author. It comes immediately after the 29th stanza in the original:

'And when, beside me in the dale,
He carol'd lays of love,
His breath lent fragrance to the gale,
And music to the grove.'

The

The whole of the third volume is occupied by the Citizen of the World; and the fourth contains the lives of Dr. Parnell and Lord Bolingbroke, prefaces to various publications, the Bee, and other essays.—The work is handsomely printed, and is ornamented with an engraving of the author from a picture by Sir Joshua Reynolds. **S.R.**

ART. VII. *Religion without Cant:* or, a Preservative against Lukewarmness and Intolerance, Fanaticism, Superstition, and Impiety. By Robert Fellowes, A. M. of St. Mary-Hall, Oxford, Author of a Picture of Christian Philosophy, &c. &c. 8vo. pp. 460. 9s. Boards. White. 1801.

WE are not now, for the first time, to introduce Mr. Fellowes to the acquaintance of our readers: on more than one occasion, we have already laid before them his claims to their attention and their praise; and it might suffice to furnish them with an account of the present volume without any prefatory remarks. A peculiar opportunity presents itself, however, of adding great weight to our testimony in the writer's favor; and both the justice due to merit, and the hope of doing good by holding virtue up to view and to imitation, induce us to profit by the circumstance. From a note, then, to Dr. Parr's Spital Sermon *, we extract the following character of the author of this volume:

"Of Mr. Fellowes, curate of Harbury in Warwickshire, in consequence of some reproaches that have been lately thrown upon his intellectual and moral character, I am bounden to say that I am acquainted with no clergyman in this or any neighbouring county, who is more respectable for diligence in his studies, for acuteness in his understanding, for purity in his principles, for regularity and earnestness in the discharge of his clerical duties, or integrity in the whole tenor of his life. He possesses only a scanty income, and has no prospect, I believe, of ecclesiastical preferment. But he administers medicine to the sick, he gives alms to the needy, he offers instruction to the ignorant, he "visits the fatherless and the widow in their affliction," and keeps "himself," in no common degree, "unspotted from the world."—He has sense enough to be a Christian without bigotry, and virtue enough to be a philosopher without profaneness. He professes Christianity from conviction, he explains it with perspicuity, he defends it with ardour, and he comments upon the temper and actions of its blessed Author with reverence the most profound, and eloquence the most impressive. After all, it must be confessed that Mr. Fellowes does not assent to some positions of Mr. Wilberforce about original sin: but for the attempt to refute Mr. Wilberforce, some enlightened believers may applaud, and some orthodox churchmen, I believe, would pardon him."

---

* See Rev. for March last, p. 248.

This picture, though sketched by the hand of friendship, seems to be a faithful likeness. Mr. Fellowes appears to possess a clearness of conception, and a virtuous manliness of character; he is a lover of religion which produces pure and unostentatious morality; and he is a hater of the cant which commonly attaches to fanaticism. Much, however, as we admire the tendency of his former publications, and applaud the object of that now before us, we should have presented him with more unqualified commendation, had he been less severe on the motives of fanatical leaders; had he abstained from reflecting on *Evangelical Preachers*, which he does in a note p. 63, as 'loving darkness better than light, *because their deeds are evil*;' and, cautiously avoiding personalities, had he confined himself entirely to the exposure of the errors and pernicious tendencies of modern fanaticism. Nothing is more certain, in the opinion of men of sense and learning, than that the gospel of Christ is much misrepresented; and that the view of the Christian doctrine, which some mistaken zealots are continually exhibiting to the people, is neither correct nor innocuous. Its nature is adapted to captivate the vulgar: but the reason of their preference, if fairly scrutinized, will not be found to reflect any honour on its object. The language of fanaticism is so degrading to morality, that he is a friend to genuine religion who exposes its fallacy, and the fatal impression which it is likely to make on common minds.—The words of the "*modest* Foster," as Pope calls him, are so nicely discriminative, and so immediately apply to the subject before us, that, had they occurred to Mr. F., we should probably have found them among his quotations:

"*To preach Christ* (said this amiable man) is universally allowed to be the duty of every Christian minister. But what does it mean? —'Tis not to use his name as a charm, to work up our hearers to a warm pitch of enthusiasm, without any foundation of reason to support it.—'Tis not to make his person and his offices incomprehensible.—'Tis not to exalt his glory, as a kind condescending Saviour, to the dishonor of the supreme and unlimited goodness of the Creator and Father of the universe, who is represented as stern and inexorable, expressing no indulgence to his guilty creatures, but demanding full and rigorous satisfaction for their offences.—'Tis not to encourage undue and presumptuous reliances on his merits and intercession, to the contempt of virtue and good works. No: but to represent him as a *lawgiver* as well as a Saviour, as a *preacher of righteousness*, as one who has given us a most noble and complete system of morals, enforced by the most substantial and worthy motives; and to shew, that the whole scheme of our redemption is *a doctrine according to godliness*."

This is unquestionably the mode of preaching Christ which existed among the Apostles, and which every friend to rational

rational Christianity must be desirous of seeing universally adopted.

Aware of the progress of fanaticism, Mr. Fellowes labours to bring back the general sentiment to the gospel standard; and so earnest is he on this head, that he wishes (p. 131, note,) that the ministers of the Established Church were *compelled* to teach nothing but *that pure morality which Christ taught, without any cant or any mystery.*

'Christian divines,' says he, 'do not sufficiently call the attention of the young, of the old, and the middle-aged, to the eternal importance of practical soberness, righteousness, and godliness.—Finding the great indifference of Christians in general to these most interesting topics, finding some separating religion from morals, or morals from religion, making the gospel of Jesus contemptible or ridiculous, polluting it with cant, or perplexing it with sophisms, lowering its sublimity by their frivolous and unworthy glosses, or burying its simplicity under an abyss of dark and doubtful disputations, I have endeavoured in this work, as well as in my Picture of Christian Philosophy, to warm the hearts of men with the spirit of true righteousness, and to lead them into a right track of thinking on the doctrines and the duties, on the true character and genius, of Christianity.'

The work commences with an examination and refutation of some of the most fashionable tenets of modern fanaticism; after which the author proceeds distinctly to discuss the points at issue between rational divines and those who, in the cant of the times, are called Evangelical preachers. He contends that man is a free agent, and accountable for his actions only to God the moral governor; that the doctrine of original sin *, as taught by the fanatics, is incompatible with the moral government of God, and the nature of man; and that what is called original righteousness is a mere fiction.

'Man,' he observes, 'did not originally possess any thing like an *ingenerate habit of righteousness;* but he possessed at the beginning, as he has done in all ages and generations since, certain tendencies to good, implanted in his nature; and which he is required to invigorate by cultivation. He brings into the world certain powers, as those of reason and the moral sense, which are necessary to him as a moral agent, accountable for his actions; he possesses the power of discerning good from evil, and of choosing between them; and on the right use of these powers, much of his present and all his future happiness depends. If he prudently exercise and carefully improve these salutary faculties of his nature, he doeth good; if he misapply them, he doeth evil. If he do good, he continueth in favour with God; if he do evil, he falls, as Adam fell, under his displeasure.'

* In another place, he terms the doctrine of hereditary corruption a *loathsome* doctrine.

A judicious dissertation on Faith is next given; in which the author explains the general nature of faith, detects the mistakes which are propagated respecting it, and, while he exposes the folly of imagining that sensation is the proper seat of faith, defines saving faith to be a conviction of the mind, blended with the persuasion of the heart. In this chapter he addresses himself to infidels on the one hand, and to fanatics on the other; and his reasoning merits the serious consideration of both.

The doctrine of Regeneration comes next under review; and Mr. F.'s mode of argument will be sufficiently evinced by the following extracts:

'The Fanatics suppose regeneration to be a change wrought in the soul in direct opposition to the will and the affections. According to their notions, the rational faculties of the creature are as little concerned in the production of the *new birth* as they are in that of our original formation in the womb. They feign that man is, by the constitution of his nature, so prone to evil, and so averse to good, that his depravity is inherent and incurable. This depravity, they say, exposes us, from the first moment of our existence, to God's wrath and damnation. Thus they represent God as angry with us, for no other reason than because we are born. But this is so gross a perversion of scripture and reason, that it hardly deserves a confutation. God cannot be angry with us merely for being born; for we are born without our consent, and have no choice given us either to be born or not, either to have or not to have existence.

'Our natural birth can be no transgression, for there can be no criminality in any act whatever to which the will does not consent.'—

'A man must be a sinner before it is necessary for him to be a penitent. Repentance implies a strong conviction of sinfulness; but a man cannot repent of sins which he never committed, and which consequently can make no impression upon his conscience. Moral guilt must, therefore, be first contracted by some *actual, personal transgressions*, before we can be accounted sinners in the sight of God: and when personal disobedience has made us sinners, it is necessary that a change be wrought in our moral disposition and habits, that we turn from sin unto holiness, and be renewed in the spirit of our minds.

'Thus the doctrine of regeneration becomes clear and easy; for regeneration implies a reformation from bad habits unto good; a return from the paths of iniquity unto those of righteousness; it is, in fact, only another name for repentance confirmed; that repentance, which causeth not only sorrow for sin, but produces newness of life.'

Impressed with the importance of just sentiments on this subject, the author concludes the chapter with this address to the Christian:

'Believe not, O Christian! that thou comest into the world with a heart indisposed to good, and disposed to evil, full of corruption

ruption and iniquity; but rather know that thou art born innocent and upright, and that it is only by personal acts of sin, hardening into habits of sin, that thou becomest a transgressor, subject to the wrath of God, and, without repentance, liable to damnation. Remember, that, like the first parent of the human race, thou art placed here in a state of trial; and that thou wilt be happy or miserable after death, in proportion to the habits of goodness or depravity which thou acquirest in this mortal life. When thy heart and affections are estranged from the love of God, and when habits of unrighteousness are incorporated in thy flesh; when sin becomes, as it were, a law in thy members, so that thy reason is subjugated by its influence, and thy sense of right has become too impotent to prevent the practice of wrong; then let me beseech thee to remember, that nothing but true and unfeigned repentance can save thy soul; and that no repentance can be sincere or saving, that does not purify the mind and affections, that does not convince the mind of the necessity of obedience to the divine will, and interest the affections in its practice.'

A distinct chapter is also devoted to the Doctrine of Grace, of which a scriptural, rational, and practical account is given; and the notions of the fanatics are strenuously combated. To this part succeeds a plain and affectionate recommendation of the practice of repentance; with an explanation of the manner in which temptations may be resisted and conquered, and of the causes of religious error and unbelief. Respecting the diversities of religious opinion, Mr. F. makes these liberal observations, and in a note addresses himself to Dr. Priestley:

'All modes of faith, though they may not be consonant to each other, or agreeable to the determinations of scripture, will, probably, be acceptable to God, if they do not encourage immorality of conduct; for, while some points of faith and doctrine seem too dark to be made clear, and too intricate to be unravelled *, the duties of morality are always so strongly and plainly enforced, that *any faith, which is adverse to moral obligation, must necessarily be contrary to the doctrine of Christ.*'—

'If points of faith be left dubious, men may embrace different opinions respecting them, and yet not err in the sight of God. That many points of faith are left dubious, appears from this, that while different churches adopt different creeds, learned and conscientious members of the same church often differ in certain speculative matters of belief. Some think that there are three persons in the Godhead, others only one †; some think that grace is a *miraculous*

'* From primary design, or subsequent corruption?

'† I wish that Dr. Priestley, instead of lavishing so much time and talents on a fruitless controversy, had profited by the following remarks of Grotius: "Vix est ut, cùm de Deo loquimur, utamur vocibus quæ omnes incommodas interpretationes effugiant. Scholæ Græcæ et Latinæ, post multas curiosas et audaces disputationes, in verbis

raculous infusion; others think that what is called grace is that divine blessing which, in the moral order of things, and, according to fixed and established laws, as constant and uniform as those in the natural world, always attends on the operations of goodness. On these, and many other knotty questions in Christian theology, individuals have differed, and may and perhaps always will differ; but they cannot so easily differ about the duties of Christian practice; because those duties are not obscurely expressed, or of doubtful and equivocal construction. They do not admit of a diversity of opinions on their sanctity or importance; and that faith, therefore, cannot be agreeable to the will of God, or consistent with the gospel of his Son, which generates a practice opposite to those rules of life, which the author of christianity both taught and practised; from *whose yoke no man is free, and whose obligations no man, whatever may be his speculative belief, has a privilege to violate.* No man can be sound in his faith who is unsound in his morals. This seems a clear, self-evident, scriptural truth; and the present state of the world, and the foolish disputes and pernicious errors at present prevailing among Christians, require it to be so universally known, that I wish I had strength of lungs to make it heard, and strength of mind to make it understood, from one end of the earth even unto the other.'

Being averse to divisions in the church of Christ, the author proceeds to descant on the evils of dissension; hoping to assuage the rancour of religious animosity, and to induce Christians to promote, on a broad and liberal basis, ecclesiastical union. As a member of the Established Church, he argues with sectaries in its favour; and his reasoning is of a temperate and conciliating cast. While he allows that there ought to be no dominion exercised over the judgment of the meanest individual in matters of religion, and that the liturgy has its defects, he contends that, "*taken for all in all,*" it is sufficient for the purposes of soberness, righteousness, and godliness. Let him here speak for himself:

---

verbis tandem convenerunt, in eorum explicatione sæpè dissident. Græci veteres quidam appellant τρόπους ὑπάρξεως (subsistendi modos) id quod Latini *Personas.* Cæterùm commodissima ac minimè intricata mihi videtur explicatio, quam ecclesia Græca, quæ erat Constantinopoli, tunc cùm urbs ea caperetur, exhibuit Turcarum Sultano. Res secundæ delicatos faciunt, res adversæ sobrios. *Veruntamen vocibus theologicis, quæ conciliorum universalium auctoritate aut magno consensu eruditorum receptæ sunt, reluctandum non est.* Non enim ita imprudenter fictæ sunt, ut non commodam interpretationem recipiant, atque etiam à multis commodè sint explicatæ. QUIBUS SE ADDERE AUT CERTE TACERE, MULTO EST SATIUS, QUAM OB RES SIBI NON MINUS QUAM ALIIS OBSCURAS, ET NIHIL AD EMENDATIONEM MORUM PERTINENTES TURBARE REM MAXIMAM PACEM ECCLESIÆ." Grot. Op. tom. iii. p. 615.

'Those

'Those sects who pretend that the partial blemishes, or the particular defects, which they descry in the Church of England, are the grounds of their separation, ought surely to consider whether its general excellence and its general usefulness might not, with more reason, become the grounds of their conformity. The latter furnish stronger arguments for support, than the former for opposition; the one stronger motives for assent, than the other for dissension. If the evil be more than balanced by the good, the establishment is not to be reprobated, because the good is not greater than it is, or so great as it might be; for, of what civil, or what religious institutions, that ever existed in the world, was the good produced entirely answerable to the expectation, to the capacity, or the possibility? If it be objected by some sects, that they cannot continue in communion with the Church of England, because she holds tenets which they deem unscriptural; may we not, without offence, exhort them to consider that "charity is the *bond of perfection*," and "*the end of the commandment?*" and that ecclesiastical peace, which is disturbed by their schisms and broken by their divisions, is a part of charity?"

The chapter on the genius of Christian charity we have perused with much pleasure and satisfaction; as we have also that which concludes the work, and which treats on the nature, tendencies, and superior importance of moral action. We cannot refrain, however, from expressing our surprise that, while Mr. F., with so much energy and pure reasoning, enforces the duty of justice and charity on man, he should think it *possible* (see note p. 349,) that, under the government of infinite rectitude and goodness, the punishment of an imperfect creature for sin '*may be eternal.*' His language on this head is expressive of doubt and modesty: but we are sorry that, in a work so replete with expanded and liberal sentiments, such a note should have appeared under any semblance or modification.

All enlightened Christians will certainly thank Mr. Fellowes for his strenuous efforts to repress both modern infidelity and modern fanaticism; and for arguing the cause of religion so impressively as to fill the mind with a conviction of its worth, and to influence the heart and conduct by the purity of its precepts. True, plain, and rational morality is with him the perfection of natural and revealed religion; and, in opposition to the flights of enthusiasm, he represents *moral* good as the *greatest* good. If he abhors cant, and is sometimes rather severe on those whom he suspects of this failing, he is an ardent lover of righteousness, and exhorts all churches to regard charity as the bond of perfectness.

Mon.

ART.

ART. VIII. *The Principles of Morality.* By George Ensor, Esq. 8vo. pp. 357. 6s. Boards. Jordan. 1801.

THE author of this publication touches on a variety of preliminary points, before he arrives at that which is the immediate object of his work. On the question of the credit due to our senses, he dissents from Berkeley; and he endeavours, at some length, to shew that the reports of the senses of different men are reconcileable. Admitting that he is founded in that conclusion, it meets but a very small part of the ingenious bishop's argument; of whose system it may be observed, that it is as rarely adopted as it is difficult to be confuted.—Mr. Ensor * next combats the ghosts of innate ideas; a disposition to again conjure them up having been shewn by some late Scotch philosophers.

Equally sceptical, but less learned and even more desultory than Bolingbroke, this author vehemently arraigns that philosopher's remarks in favour of the late origin of the world. Animadverting on what he and Lucretius advance on this subject, Mr. E. observes:

'It has been asked, if the world was made in time, why are there no records more ancient than certain wonderful writings? Pliny says, that the magician, Moses, lived many years after Zoroaster; Strabo, that the Turduli, a people of Spain, had grammatical, historical, and legal compositions, six thousand years before his time; to which Bochart answers compendiously, this is a fable, because at that time the deluge had not happened: thus the dogma of religion at once, and without inquiry or reason, decides against any period which exceeds what it pleases to specify.

'Lucretius demands, if wars preceded those of Thebes and Troy, why have they not been celebrated by poetry? This is to decide, not by knowledge, but ignorance: were it just, the Arabians might abridge the continuance of European governments to a few centuries; as Abulfeda says, the kingdoms of the Franks and negroes are equally unknown. Nothing is more absurd than to consider the memorials of time, the period of the world's commencement, as they fleet and perish like the particles that compose the human form: few of the Greek and Roman classics have descended entire, and some have only a nominal existence; scarcely one of the Gabrs can read Pahlavi, or are acquainted with the Zend; the style of Rabelais is antique; and Chaucer, by a mere English reader, is with difficulty understood.'—

'Some suppose knowledge must always advance; yet, how many nations, excelling in arts and wisdom, have been reduced to ignorance and barbarity. Britain, which had made a considerable progress under the Romans, by the outrage of foreign and domestic robbers, relapsed on their departure into its former rudeness. A pas-

* The anagram, probably, of the author's real name.

sage in Procopius manifests how soon notorious facts give place to lies and prodigies. Britain " is divided into two parts; to the east it is fruitful, and abounds with inhabitants; to the westward, human life could not be supported half an hour.—Here the souls of the dead are transported."—

' Let me still farther expose the littleness of mind, that on such grounds presumes the yesterday's beginning of the world.

' What has not been committed against its annals by bigots and conquerors? It was the avowed design of Adolphus, the successor of Alaric, to change the order of the existing world, and, by erecting an empire on the ruins of the Roman name, originate a new series of events. What the Goth devised has been often perpetrated. The Gaurs say that Alexander burned their religious books, which, like the Bedas of the Hindoos, contained all their religious, moral, and philosophical knowledge. By the order of Omar, an immense library was distributed to heat the public baths of Alexandria. Astronomical observations in Persia, containing (it is said) an immense portion of time, were made known to Hipparchus; yet the oblivion occasioned by the same barbarian was so complete, that, according to Gibbon, " the modern Persians are wholly ignorant of the victory of Sapor over the Romans—an event so glorious to their nation." Thus their own brutality to the Egyptians was retaliated: for, at the instigation of the magi, they attacked and overcame that people, destroying at the same time their temples, and all the traditionary and learned treasures of that singular nation.

' What cruel ravages have been made on the literary bequests of the Greeks and Romans! In the reign of Theodosius, a library of two hundred thousand volumes, a present from Antony to Cleopatra, fell a victim to the Christian priesthood. Pope Gregory's persecution of heathen authors will give immortal infamy to his name. During the reformer's crusade in Edward the Sixth's reign, literature of every kind was sacrificed; books of general knowledge, because they were useless; those of geometry and astronomy, because they merely contained necromancy and magic.

' When the Protestants in Scotland superseded the former superstition, " Abbies, cathedrals, churches, libraries, records, and even the sepulchres of the dead, perished in one common ruin." Robertson and Hume also inform us, that when Edward the First invaded Scotland, he ransacked the depositories of the kingdom, destroying whatever related to its history and independance; and, on this account, all relations prior to that period are fabulous and doubtful.

' Nor is this merciless spirit unknown to the most distant regions of the earth. The Seredaw told Symes *, that the archives of Pegue were destroyed by the state's convulsions. Chihoamti, the Chinese conqueror, ordered the professors of philosophy to be slain, and their books consumed: in consequence, the missionaries relate, all memorials, three centuries before this æra, are apocryphal. These facts explain why there is such a paucity of authentic records, and by what means civilized nations re-immerge into their primeval barbarity.'

' * Embassy to Ava, p. 192.

Mr. Ensor

Mr. Ensor lays great stress on the fall of empires, and the ravages of the elements, as accounting for the oblivion of past times.

Divines have incurred this writer's high displeasure by calling men atheists; a sort of beings of which he denies the possible existence. His great argument is founded on the absurdity of the tenet: but this would weigh equally against the supposition of there being any believers in transubstantiation; for can it be more difficult to refuse assent to the idea of a God, than to believe that a piece of bread is the Creator and Sovereign Ruler of all things?

In a few subsequent pages, the author ably sums up the mummeries and contrivances by which Paganism, and other superstitions, laid such complete hold on the minds of men.

The grand tenet of modern infidelity, namely, that which makes fear the parent of religion, is here confidently and strenuously maintained; and if quotations in profusion could establish the point, it could not well be doubted. The author then combats the doctrine of the soul's immortality, and thus concludes his observations on that important head: 'I do not deny the immortality of the soul as an emanation; but it seems to me the most extreme frenzy to suppose that man shall survive his mortality on earth, in a conscious independent existence.' Religious belief, he strangely insists, lends no support to morality, and has no beneficial influence on human conduct.

He next considers the subject of prophecies; a topic which he very lightly estimates, disposing of it by alleging that predictions were exceedingly common in the pagan world, and that the faculty of uttering them was taught as an art.—The effect of the confessions of dying persons, as urged in favor of religion, he thus meets:

'Cleomenes, on being reproached for having, in a severe illness, fallen, from his contempt of prophecies, divination, and such nonsense, to implicit credulity, excused himself by saying, I am not what I was; but the priesthood consider dereliction of mind, by sickness or dotage, the time for sound and deliberate thinking. Wheh the mind is enfeebled, the prejudices of infancy recur, as sprains suffered in youth break forth with their original violence when robustness and strength give place to weakness and decay.'

The following passages particularly manifest the spirit of this publication, as well as the author's turn of mind:

'Were the lapses of philosophical minds much more numerous and extreme than they are, shall superstition dare to contrast them with its mad and planetary hopes? whatever be the errors of philosophy, they are confessedly human, and by human means may be corrected.

Philosophy

Philosophy depends on argument, superstition on credulity; the one rests on the uniform experience of things, the other on their violation. Philosophy does not parley with the apprehensions of the timid; it does not press into its service denunciations of eternal and excruciating vengeance; its professors are not supplied by revenues extorted from the prime necessaries of the people; it requires no statute villanously foisted into the legal code, to protect its tenets from disquisition; for, truth and freedom, not falsehood and tyranny, are its aim.'

'There are men who think, that no public service can be performed except from personal interest, and that none would (unless from disappointment or ill usage) render himself obnoxious to the priesthood, a body of men, whose established order alone, in a well-known kingdom is immense, whose power is universal; for, besides other revenues, they appropriate five millions annually of the cultivated product of the soil. My motive is not vexation from disappointed hopes; for I never asked any man, in or out of place, directly or indirectly, for office or emolument; nor envy, nor revenge, for none (even in the peevish account of the world) ever injured me; nor party, for I neither know the chiefs nor partizans of any political sect, nor ever was of any club or close society, under whatever kind appellation the members conceal their designs of interest and power. My aim is not popular ambition; my sentiments were never popular; nor wealth, nor artificial honours; for who was ever rewarded by places or pensions, or royal favours, who struck at the root of vulgar credulity? I cannot devise any motive, unless indignation at seeing the world goaded by superstitious terrors; and oppressed by an exorbitant tax, to support those who have ever conspired against the happiness and dignity of their species, their liberty, and reason.'

Mr. Ensor seems to be actuated by the greatest spleen against the clergy, and he gives the fullest vent to its ebullitions. He loses no opportunity of throwing out remarks that are disparaging to the sacred order; and, were the charges against this respectable and useful body the only unfounded allegations in these pages, we should have taken more notice of them than we design to bestow. One, however, we cannot refrain from introducing, and we shall state it in his own words. Speaking of the clergy, he says; 'The question again recurs, in what period of time have they made morality their object? Regard the public libraries, how few moral treatises adorn their shelves; what millions of interpretations, commentaries, glosses, paraphrases, readings, annotations, and polemical nonsense incumber these temples of learning.' As applied to the works of the divines of our church for the last century and a half, no accusation, we think, can be more groundless.

The author is offended, also, with its being maintained that the more pure moral doctrines are taught in the scriptures

alone; for he insists that they are all inculcated and recommended by the heathen writers. He shews considerable ability in combating, also, the doctrine of the unequal distribution of good and evil in this life, as well as the notion of vice having the advantage of virtue, as far as respects the present world. We own that we have always considered the arguments deduced from these two topics as slightly grounded, and as bordering on presumption; since we regard virtue as a line of conduct marking the most safe course of man, and deem it more becoming to view eternal life as flowing from God's goodness than as awarded by his justice.

We had abandoned all hopes of learning what this writer considered to be the Principles of Morality, when they were disclosed to us by the following passages, which occur near the end of the work:

'The objects of morality are man's self, his fellow men, nor are other animals to be excluded from his attention: its principles I conceive to be instinct, sympathy, and reason; by instinct I mean antipathies and affections relating directly and entirely to self, without experience of their causes or consequences: a child wishes to interfere with most things that are presented; this curiosity I refer to instinct, as desire to eat and drink: love of the sex in its first emotions proceeds from the same cause; this we participate with brutes, to whom propagation, if it ever occupies their thinking, is subsequent to passion. Instinct is obvious in many things which a child avoids; he shrieks at a mastiff, a scowling brow repels him; fierceness increases his agitation; and the infant Astyanax, on beholding Hector armed, hides in his nurse's bosom, though ignorant that violence had ever been practised among men.

'Sympathy affects through others, and refers principally to them; this we also participate with most animals; some birds, on hearing one of their flock lament the sportsman's cruelty, sympathise so blindly, that they permit themselves to be successively shot, sooner than desert their companion. Virgil remarks the sensibility of bees; and dogs have shewn attachments to their masters, that would be respectable from man to man.

'Reason I consider the third principle of moral actions; by reason I mean, knowledge from direct experience, or opinions from analogy; though man does not possess this exclusively, he does pre-eminently, and on this he justly assumes his superiority and character.'

Some able strictures on the selfish system, and some common-place remarks on the crimes of theft and murder, conclude the volume; and it is now time for us to terminate our account of it. We must observe, then, that the parade of reading which these pages display, though apparently not digested and wholly unsystematic, may impose on the ignorant; while the scholar, who may be induced to read the book by the

the numerous interesting quotations and the occasional lively observations which it contains, will regard it as one of the most crude productions that ever came from the pen of a man of reading and education.

S.R.

ART. IX. *The History of Mauritius, or the Isle of France, and the neighbouring Islands;* from their first Discovery to the present Time; composed principally from the Papers and Memoirs of Baron Grant, who resided Twenty Years in the Island. By his Son, Charles Grant, Viscount De Vaux. Illustrated with Maps from the best Authorities. 4to. pp. 600. 1l. 16s. Boards. Nicol. 1801.

AMONG the multiplicity of learned and expensive publications which have issued from the press, it is surprising that we should still be in want of those comprehensive and accurate systems of geography, furnished with numerous maps, charts, and plans, which would truly merit a place in the library of the gentleman and the scholar. The materials for such a work are abundant; and books of partial geography, employed in descriptions of particular islands and districts, seldom come before us without exciting a wish, that the information scattered through a multitude of volumes was judiciously condensed into one whole, and enriched with such an atlas as would do honour to the literature and taste of our country. We might yet hope to see such a work, if men of science would engage in the undertaking, in concert with our opulent booksellers, as it would require some capital. At the conclusion of a war, we may consider the state of nations as fixed, for some time at least; and the geographer is invited to trace on his new maps those lines of demarcation which the sword of the conqueror, or the pen of the negociator, has drawn on the surface of this terraqueous globe. Empires are so often contracting or enlarging their limits, that mere political divisions and arrangements have no long duration. Like new discoveries in science, they require new systems, and prevent the labour of the geographer from ever being completely finished. The lines and features of Nature, however, are more permanent; and the accurate delineation of them is more immediately within his province.—The object of the history before us forms but a speck in the vast map of the earth: but, if so much be worth detail in a small island in the Indian ocean, and while so many books of the same kind are published respecting other islands, and portions of coasts and continents, what ample provision is there towards realizing the idea which we have suggested!

While we offer these remarks, we do not recommend the execution of a system of general geography on the extensive scale of this volume; which, though it contains matter both interesting and informing, is diffuse and redundant. The word *History* prepared us for a well digested account of the soil, productions, and political events of Mauritius: but, instead of executing such a work, neatly arranged and judiciously condensed, the Viscount has done little more than connect together different accounts and relations, which have swollen the publication with useless repetitions. He apologizes, indeed, for these and other defects, and at the same time assigns the reason which induced him to affix the present title:

'The description of the Isle of France is collected from my father's correspondence; the accounts given or communicated to me by my friends, as well as authentic papers which I have been permitted to examine, and the printed works of distinguished writers. I experience a sensible pleasure in unfolding the observations and important operations of those eminent persons who have acted their parts on the seas, and in the country whose history has employed my pen; though I cannot but lament, that, from the nature of it, I am so limited in my accounts of them.

'I have given to my narrative all the regularity which the nature of my materials would allow; and I follow the chronological order of events, without wandering from the geographical path. The subject possesses importance, as well as novelty; but I trust, that higher emotions than those of curiosity, will be gratified by it.

'An author must ever feel some disadvantage from being a stranger in the country where he writes; but, from the peculiar circumstances in which I am involved, I am disposed to hope for that indulgence, of which I stand in great need.

'The different quotations will be found to produce occasional repetitions; but I am convinced, that a real advantage will result from it, by the accession of authorities which are produced by it. The history of islands, so little known as those of France and Bourbon, may be considered, in a great measure, as places of new discovery; to obtain a knowledge of which, it is necessary to examine the accounts of every navigator who has successively visited them. Besides, each author whom I have cited gives some specific information of his own, that has not been communicated by others.

'As authenticity is the character which I wish, above all others, to attach to my work, I have preferred to let the authors whom I have quoted, speak literally for themselves; so that I ought, perhaps, as it was my first intention, to have given to this volume the title of *Memoirs for an History of the Isle of France, &c.* But it has been suggested by my friends, that the whole contains a sufficient degree of connection and interest to receive the title of an History; and I have submitted, as became me, to their suggestion.'

We think that the author's friends made a less correct estimate of the work than he himself had formed; that it does

not manifest a sufficient degree of connection to receive the denomination of *History*; and that a more appropriate title would have been *Materials (or Collections) for a History.* We are willing, nevertheless, to admit the value of these details respecting the isles of France and Bourbon; and, regarding the work as an addition to the stock of geographical knowlege, our extracts from it will be ample, though still curtailed by the space which we are bound to assign to the other travellers in our literary vehicle.

By allowing the author to describe the plan of his performance, our readers will perceive that he takes a wide range; that he blends the history of our Eastern possessions with that of Mauritius, or the Isle of France; and that he digresses from his main subject on every occasion.

'It begins by instructing the voyager in the mode of approaching the harbours of the Isle of France; which is accompanied with a general description of the place, the nature of the air, water, and soil, and the geographical positions. But before I enter upon a detail of these circumstances, and the branches of Natural History, which arise out of them, I give a succinct and chronological account of those persons who have been appointed to the government and superintendance of the Island, from its first colonial establishment to the present moment.—I then proceed to give a particular history of the animal, vegetable, and mineral kingdoms: some account of the inhabitants, both white and black, succeeds, with their manners and customs; and is followed by a description of the beautiful scenery with which the Island is adorned.

'I naturally introduce the reader, in the first place, to the Isle of France, which is the appropriate object of my History; but I suspend its historical narrative, in order to describe the Archipelago, with its various islands, that surrounds it: such as those of Bourbon, Rodriguez, &c. all of which is so necessary to be known, to facilitate the navigation of those seas. I then return to the Isle of France, to describe its agricultural, maritime, and civil, establishments, as formed by M. de la Bourdonnais. I display all the various operations of that distinguished character, and his successors; with the astronomical, geographical, and maritime observations of the learned professors and eminent navigators, whom my father successively knew during their official visits to the Island.—I then proceed to state and explain the connection of India with the Isle of France, in all its different epochas; which conducts me through a long succession of curious and interesting events, to the death of Tippoo Saib, which rendered England the mistress of Indostan.'

The volume commences with particulars of the geographical position, dimensions, atmosphere, &c. of Mauritius; together with an account of the first settlements of the Europeans on that island, and of its governors, from the first possession of it by the French in 1715, to the present time. Its principal har-

bour, Port Louis, is situated in 20° 10′ south lat. and 55° long. east from Paris. According to the admeasurement of the Abbé de la Caille, the isle is not more than thirty-one leagues in circumference, about eleven in length, and seven in breadth; having a surface which measures 432,680 acres, at the rate of 100 feet to each acre, and 24 feet to each rod. It is described as extremely healthy, fertile, and abounding with the most romantic scenery. The tides are not very perceptible, those of the equinox rising not more than three feet. The state of the weather will be best explained by the following journal:

'January — Rainy and warm. Storms, which are sometimes accompanied with thunder, though by no means violent; and, as the tempestuous season approaches, all navigation is suspended till the month of April; when the fields become green, and the whole landscape assumes a more cheerful appearance.

'February.—Violent gales of wind, and hurricanes, with thunder. These hurricanes, which, till the year 1789, were constant in this month, have since that time entirely ceased: but the inhabitants have not a sufficient dependence on this circumstance, as to be wholly unprepared for them, in case they should return, and renew their former ravages.

'March. — The rains are less frequent, the winds always in the south-east, and the heat moderate

'April.—The season is fine, and the grass begins to wither on the mountains.

'May.—Westerly and north-west winds; the season dry, but in the low grounds and the interior parts of the island, the air possesses an agreeable freshness.

'June.—The winds are stationary at the south-east, from which point they very seldom vary. The rain falls in small drops.

'July.—Wind in the south-east; strong breezes during the day, which subside at night, when it becomes calm. The rain falls in slight dropping showers; and the air is so cool as to require warm clothing. In short, it is now winter, if such an expression may be employed in a country where the trees never lose their leaves.

'August.—It rains almost every day. The summits of the mountains are clad in cloudy vapours, which descend into the vallies, accompanied with gales of wind.

'September.—The same weather and the same wind. It is now the time of harvest.

'October. — The temperature of the air is somewhat warmer; though it is still fresh in the interior parts of the island. At the end of this month the corn is sown, and in four months it is reaped. It is sown again in May, and is ripe in September; so that there are two harvests in the course of the year.

'November.—The heat is now very sensibly felt; the winds are variable, and are sometimes in the north-west. The rains are accompanied with storms.

'December.—The heats increase. The sun is vertical, but the heat of the air is moderated by the rains, which destroy the rats, grass-

grasshoppers, ants, &c. In short, the winds and rains produce the same beneficial effect, which other climates receive from the cold and frosts of the winter season.'

M. de Vaux gives a very full account of the soil and natural productions of the island; from which we must take only the following short extracts:

'The earth is almost universally of a reddish colour, and mixed with ferruginous matter, which often appears on the surface in small orbicular shapes of the size of a pea. In the dry seasons the ground becomes extremely hard, particularly in the environs of the town. It resembles potters' earth, and when cut into trenches it is divided like lead with hatchets. After rain it becomes viscid and tenacious, but it is very fertile when cultivated; and the cultivation does not require extraordinary labour.

'There is no real sand; and that which is found on the sea-shore is formed of the madreporæ and shells, and calcines by fire. The ground is covered with rocks, from the size of a man's head to that of a large barrel. They are full of holes, at the bottom of which is an opening in the form of a lentil. Many of these rocks are in the shape of kidneys. In some places they appear in large masses; in others they are broken, but in such a manner as if they had suffered a separation, and been reunited. The mountains are formed of them, which, though parallel with one another, present themselves obliquely to the horizon. They are of an iron-gray colour, vitrify in the fire, and contain ferruginous matter; small pieces of very fine copper and lead have been extracted from them. In fragments of these stones are small crystallized cavities, some of which contain a very fine white down.'

Of the trees natural to the island, we are presented with a long catalogue; among which, we are informed,

'A large and very uncommon tree is found among the rocks, whose substance is as soft as the flesh of a turnip. It is called Mapou, or stinking-wood, from its offensive odour, and is considered as unwholesome.

'The Bois de ronde is small, hard, and twisted; when burning it emits a lively flame: it is formed into flambeaux, and is considered as incorruptible.

'Bois de Cannelle. The cinnamon wood, so called from a slight resemblance to the real spice tree of that name, is among the largest of the island. Its wood is useful in joinery work, and resembles that of the walnut tree both in colour and veins. When first worked up, it emits a fœtid smell, like that of excrement, a peculiarity which it possesses in common with the flower of the cinnamon. Its seeds are enveloped in a red peel of a sour but very agreeable taste.

'The Benjoin, so called from its compact quality, is admirably calculated for the purposes of the wheelwright. It is very thick, and never splits.

'The Colophane, which yields a resinous juice, like that of the real rosin, is one of the largest trees in the island.

'The fictitious Tatamaca, is very well adapted for building; it is of a very large size, and its trunk has been sometimes known to measure fifteen feet in circumference. It weeps a gum like that of the real Tatamaca.

'Le Bois de Lait. The milk-wood, so called from its milky juice.

'Le Bois puant. The stinking-wood; which, though it emits an unpleasant odour, is excellent timber.

'The Iron tree. Its trunk is, as it were, blended with the roots; while from its sides a kind of small wing projects in the form of planks. Its wood is so hard as to turn the hatchet's edge.

'The Bois de fougue, is a large creeping tree, whose bark is very tough: it also yields a milky juice, which is esteemed to be an excellent vulnerary.

'The Fig tree is of a large size; but neither its leaves nor fruit resemble those of the same name so common in Europe. The figs are of the same shape, but they grow in bunches at the end of the branches. Its juice when dried becomes an elastic gum.

'The Ebony tree. Its bark is white, with a large and stiff leaf, which is pallid beneath, and whose upper surface is verdant. Its heart alone is black, while its top is white. In a trunk of six inches square there is not more than two inches of ebony. The wood of it, in a fresh state, smells like human excrement, and its flower throws forth the odour of the clove: it produces a fruit like the medlar, full of a viscous juice, which is sweet, and of an agreeable flavour. There is also a kind of ebony, whose surface is white with black veins.

'The Latanier is a larger tree of the palm species; on its summit it produces leaves in the shape of a fan. They are used as coverings for houses: though but one is produced in the course of a year.

'The Palm (Palmiste) is the most lofty of the forest; on its top it bears a bunch of palms, from whence proceeds a sprout, which is the only part that is esculent, and to obtain it the tree itself must be cut down. This vegetable, which is called a cabbage, is formed by young leaves rolled up together: it is very tender, and of an agreeable taste.

'The Coffee tree is the most useful tree or shrub in the island. It is a kind of jessamine, with white flowers; its leaves are a fine green, placed in regular opposition to each other, and are like those of the laurel; its fruit is of a deep red, and separates into two beans. The trees are planted at the distance of seven feet from each other, and they are lopped at the height of six feet: they last only seven years: at three years they bear fruit; and the annual produce of each tree is estimated at a pound of berries. A Negro can annually cultivate a thousand pounds weight of it, independent of the berries necessary to his own subsistence. The inhabitants pretend that the coffee of this island is inferior only to that of Moka.

'The Bananier grows everywhere, but has no wood; it is nothing but a tuft of leaves, which rise in columns; and expand, at the top, in broad bands of green, which have the appearance of satin. At the end of a year, there sprouts forth from the top a long cluster, bristled over with fruit, in the shape of a cucumber. The fruit, which is mucilaginous, has an agreeable taste, and the

Negroes

Negroes are very fond of it: it is given them on festivals, and they reckon their time by the course and number of Banana feasts. Its leaves resemble silk girdles; its cluster falls down for several feet, and its violet-coloured head resembles that of a serpent: this circumstance may have been the cause of its being called the fig tree of Adam. This fruit lasts all the year, and there are many kinds of it, some of the size of a plumb, and others as long as a man's arm. Linen may also be made of the fibres of this plant.'

Among the animals, the most singular is the great Bat:

'It is about a foot in length, from its posterior extremity to its beak, and its wings stretch to about four feet; it has large canine teeth, consisting of four in the upper, and as many in the lower jaw. Its muzzle is black and sharp; its ears large and bare; its talons are hooked, large, and compressed: it has no tail. These bats are of different colours; some of a bright red, others brown, and some are almost black. They resemble the common bat in their interior conformation, the shape of their wings, and the manner of spreading them when they fly. When these animals repose, they cling to the tops of the highest trees, and hang with their heads downwards. At other times, they fix themselves upon animals, and even upon man himself. They feed indifferently on fruit, flesh, and insects. They are so fond of the juice of the palm tree, that they sometimes intoxicate themselves with it, so as to fall to the ground. Their horrid shrieks are heard, during the night, in the forests, at the distance of two miles, but they retire at the approach of day. Nothing is safe from the ravages of these destructive creatures; they equally destroy the wild and domestic birds, whenever they have an opportunity; and they will sometimes attack the human kind, by seizing and tearing the visage. It is very probable, as M. de Buffon has observed, that the ancients borrowed their idea of harpies, from these terrible animals. The Indians consider them as a palatable article of food, particularly in certain seasons of the year, when they are full of fat: and even some of the French people, both in this island and the isle of Bourbon, have brought themselves, in this particular, to follow the Indian example. The negroes, however, hold them in the greatest horror; and no consideration whatever could induce them to have any other concern with these noxious creatures, but to destroy them; for which purpose they employ uncommon dexterity. It has often happened, that persons have been attacked, while asleep, and bled to death by them, as they are powerful and subtle bloodsuckers; so that it is really dangerous to slumber in the open air, or to let them enter into an house during the night.'

Dogs brought into this island are said to lose their hair and scent, but never go mad. In the kingdom of Congo, on the coast of Angola, European imported dogs also lose their sense of smelling. See Appendix to our xxxviith vol. (published with this Review) p. 456, 457.

In the list of marine productions, it is observed that all the univalves are turned from left to right; the shell being placed

on its mouth, and the point towards the person who regards it; and, moreover, that there may be 'ranked also among the shell-fish, a shapeless, soft, and membraneous mass, in the centre of which is a single flat bone, somewhat bent. In this species the common order of things seems reversed, as the animal is without, and the shell within.'

The character of the female inhabitants of Mauritius is so pleasing and honourable, that it ought not to be omitted:

'The women have but little colour, but they are well made, and, in general, handsome. Nature has given them a considerable portion of wit and vivacity; and if their education were not neglected, their society would be very agreeable: they are very fond mothers; and if they ever fail in fidelity to the marriage vow, it is too often owing to the indifference of their hushands, or to the Parisian manners which have been introduced among them. Their ordinary dress is fine muslin, lined with rose coloured taffetas.

'They possess, in a great degree, the more estimable domestic qualities; they seldom or never drink any thing but water, and their cleanliness is extreme. Their children are never confined in swaddling clothes, but run about almost as soon as they are born; they are often bathed, and allowed to eat fruit at their own discretion. As they are left entirely to themselves, and are uncontrolled by the superintendance of education, they soon become strong and robust, and their temperament advances in proportion. The females are sometimes married at eleven years of age.'

We are not, however, pleased with the account given of the Blacks; though the piety which is forced on them, and the natural reluctance of their faith, excited a smile:

'Their manner of life is as follows: At day-break, the smacking of a whip is the signal that calls them to their work; and they then proceed to the plantation, where they labour in a state of almost entire nakedness, and in the heat of the sun. Their nourishment is ground maize boiled in water, or loaves of the manioc; and a small piece of cloth is their only covering. For the least act of negligence, they are tied hand and foot to a ladder, when the overseer gives them a certain number of strokes on their back with a long whip; and with a three-pointed collar clasped round their necks, they are brought back to their work. It is not necessary to describe the severity with which these punishments are sometimes inflicted. On their return to their habitations in the evening, *they are compelled to pray to God for the prosperity of their masters.*'—

'Religion is, indeed, sometimes employed to alleviate the evils of their situation. Some of them are occasionally baptised: they are then told that they are become the brethren of the white people, and that they will go into Paradise; but it is not an easy matter to persuade them, that the Europeans will ever prove their guides to heaven.'

To

To the history of the Mauritius are subjoined descriptions of the neighbouring isles of Bourbon and Rodriguez *. These are succeeded by the letters of Baron Grant (the author's father) respecting the isle of France, and the operations of M. de la Bourdonnais, including his capture of Madras, in the year 1746. Among the interesting particulars contained in these letters, is an anecdote of M. Greville de Forval, which we shall transcribe; not as being a second story of Inkle and Yarico, but as being more honourable to European sentiment and generosity, while on the part of the jetty female it is not less demonstrative of pure and dignified attachment. In both stories, the lady is the prominent figure; though Forval acted nobly, and not like the contemptible Inkle:

'The want of slaves in our colonies renders expeditions necessary in order to procure them. Vessels, therefore, are equipped for the coasts of Africa and Madagascar, and a certain body of troops are sent with them, to favour or support the objects of these voyages.

'Forval was ordered to command a detachment on a service of this nature, on the coast of Madagascar; and, being arrived on the eastern side of it, he disembarked his people, and encamped them on the small island of St. Mary, called by the natives Ibrahim, which is separated only from the principal island by a very narrow strait. Here the communications took place between the persons engaged in this expedition, and one of the petty princes of Madagascar, relative to the objects of the voyage.

'Forval, however, was so entirely convinced of the good disposition of the people with whom he treated, that he yielded to the friendly solicitations of the king, to remain among them; and accordingly ordered some tents, and a small number of soldiers, to remove

---

* Of this latter island, the following passage will sufficiently indicate the nature of the climate:

'The air of Rodriguez is very pure and wholesome; and, as a proof of it, not one of us was sick during the two years we remained there, notwithstanding the great difference of climate and mode of nourishment. The worthy man whose remains we left behind us, lost his life in consequence of violent fatigue. The heats of the summer are very much moderated; as, at eight o'clock in the morning, a light north-east or north-west wind constantly rises, and gives such an agreeable freshness to the air, and such a temperature to the hottest season, that the whole year appears to be one continual spring or autumn; as it is never too cold to forbid the pleasure of bathing. The nights are mild and refreshing. It rains but very seldom; at least we never experienced rain but for a few weeks after the hurricane, in the months of January and February. Within an hour after the rain has fallen, the ground is sufficiently dry to admit of walking. The dews, which are abundant, supply the place of showers; and as for thunder, which is sometimes so tremendous in various parts of Europe, it is never heard in this tranquil abode.'

from

from the little island to the opposite coast. The king, who was called Adrian Baba, loaded him with caresses; and, having shewn him his head of cattle, demanded, in the pride of his heart, if the King of France was so great as him.

'Forval, therefore, considered himself as in a perfect state of security; and having entered into his tent, in order to pass the night, he received an unexpected visit from a most beautiful woman, a native of the island, who, after a short compliment of apology for her intrusion, expressed her concern that so fine a white man as himself should be massacred.

'Forval, who was astonished at the visit, could not help taking notice of the danger which seemed to have produced it. The sooty lady, who appeared to interest herself so much in his welfare, was the daughter of a King, and known by the title of Princess Betsy. On being questioned as to the cause of this visit, she asked him in her turn, if he would wish to sacrifice her life to save his own. "By no means," exclaimed Forval: "then," replied she, "I will inform you of a plot formed against your life, if you will promise to take me with you, and make me your wife. I will sacrifice for you the throne of my father, which is my inheritance; I will abandon my country, my friends, my customs, and that liberty which is so dear to me. My relations, who will consider me as dishonoured, will detest me; and if you leave me to their vengeance, I shall be reduced to slavery, which, to me, would be a thousand times worse than death. Promise to grant what I have demanded; swear that your soldiers shall do no injury to my relations, and I will reveal what it is of the utmost importance for you to know." Forval immediately engaged to grant her request, if the intelligence she announced proved to be of the importance she had attached to it.

"Well then," said she, "at break of day my father will come here, under the pretext of a friendly visit; and if he breaks a stick which he will hold in his hand, that will be the signal of thy death: his guard will then enter with their hatchets, and will kill thee, and all thy people will be massacred with thee!"

'Forval immediately conducted her to a place of safety. Nevertheless he was determined to wait till the morning, and ascertain the truth of her information. The princess had also added, that the signal the king would give for his attendants to retire would be to throw his hat towards them.

'He accordingly ordered his soldiers to remain under arms during the night, and to keep within their tents. As for himself, he got his arms in readiness, placed a couple of pistols under the covering of his table, and dozed by the side of it, with his hand on the pistols.

'At length the King arrived, and soon after, having broke his stick, the guard was advancing to the front of the tent; but the King, terrified at the pistol which Forval held to his throat, cast his hat towards his attendants, who immediately departed. The small party of soldiers which Forval had with him were now drawn up in order of battle. All the Negroes had disappeared; the king alone remained as a prisoner; nor was he enlarged, till the Princess was embarked with all the equipage; and Forval felt himself happy

in

in departing from this perfidious coast. Nor was he ungrateful: he solemnly espoused the Princess Betsy, in spite of all the remonstrances of his friends, and he lives happily with her. Her colour was certainly displeasing to the white people, and her education did not qualify her to be a companion to such a man as her husband; but her figure was fine, her air noble, and all her actions partook of the dignity of one who was born to command.

'She was a real Amazon, and the dress she chose was that which has since received a similar name. She never walked out but she was followed by a slave, and armed with a small fowling-piece, which she knew how to employ with great dexterity, and would defend herself with equal courage if she were attacked. She was nimble as a deer, though stately in her demeanour; but with her husband as gentle and submissive as the most affectionate of his slaves. She behaved to her inferiors with equal dignity and kindness; and she never went to the most distant part of the island, to pay visits to her family, but on foot; she nevertheless adopted the elegances of behaviour with great facility, and her society is very pleasant and full of vivacity.

'Some years after her marriage, the Princess Betsy, for she was seldom called Madame de Forval, gave her husband a new proof of her affection.

'Her father at length died, the kingdom descended to her, and her people, who were ardently attached to the blood of their Kings, anxiously wished to see her on the throne of her ancestors. As soon as she was informed of this event, she requested permission of her husband to visit her country.

'Though such an unexpected request astonished Forval, he did not hesitate to comply with it; and as she did not unfold the reason of such a desire on her part, he felt his pride mortified at her conduct, though he kept his chagrin to his own bosom, of which it was a painful inmate.

'The first sentiments of Forval, respecting his Princess, had been instigated by honour and gratitude: but her demeanour towards him, her conduct towards others, and her personal charms, in which her colour was forgotten, had awakened in his heart the most faithful and tender affection.

'The Queen Betsy, however, departed for her kingdom as soon as she had received permission of her own sovereign; while Forval was totally unable to reconcile the step she had taken to her former sentiments and past conduct. He accordingly waited with the utmost impatience for the return of the vessel which had taken her away; when, to his great astonishment his faithful wife returned in it, with an hundred and fifty slaves which she had brought him. "You had the generosity," she cried, on throwing herfelf into his arms, "to marry me, in opposition to the wishes of your friends, and the prejudices of your country, when I had nothing to offer you but my person, whose charms, whatever they might have been considered in my own country, were calculated rather to disgust, than to please you. You will therefore add another proof of your kindness, by assuring me of your pardon, for having raised a single doubt in your mind respecting the affection and duty you so entirely deserve from me: but

but it was my wish to avoid informing you of the project I had conceived on my father's death, till it was executed. It was not the little kingdom which that event transferred to me, nor even the largest empire, that would separate me from you; my sole design, in the step I have just taken, was to make you an offer of a small number of my subjects, which is the only part of my inheritance that I can bestow. I have, at the same time, complied with the wishes of my people, in resigning my little sovereignty to the most worthy of my relations."

'Such a scene may be more easily conceived than described. Thus Forval found his wife worthy of all his affection; and the present she made him is a sort of fortune in this country.'

The chapter on the island of Madagascar contains a curious history of a Russian princess, residing at Mauritius, extracted from the letters of Baron Grant, in the years 1750 and 1751, and from the secret memoirs of Du Clos: but, as we have not room to insert it, we must refer the lovers of anecdotes to the work.

It is impossible for us regularly to follow the author (or, rather, collector,) through the miscellaneous contents of this large volume; which includes extracts from the Registers of the Royal Academy of Marine, and from the Memoirs of the Royal Academy of Sciences; from the Lives of M. D'Apres de Mannevillette, of l'Abbé de la Caille, of Hyder Ally Khan, and of Count Lally; from the farther Correspondence of Baron Grant; from the History of India during the Seven Years' War, &c. &c. In a chapter towards the conclusion, we are presented with a narrative of the excursion of M. de St. Pierre in the isle of France, including a description of the cavern near the great river; with observations on the island by the Abbé Raynal, by Captain Munro, and by M. de Cossigny.

In order that the work may contain every event and circumstance necessary to impart the most perfect knowledge of the isles of France and Bourbon, the Viscount subjoins, in the concluding chapter, an abstract of events relative to Mauritius, from the termination of his father's correspondence to the year 1800. Here, as an affectionate son, he takes occasion to pay an honourable tribute to the memory of his parent, by describing the exemplary manner in which Baron Grant (who died in June 1784) passed the latter years of his valuable life. He then presents us with the Proclamation of the Governor of Mauritius in January 1798—Proceedings of Tippoo Sultaun's Ambassadors in their Voyage to Mauritius—Copy of a letter from the Secret Committee of Directors to the Government in India, November 1798—Letters of Bonaparte at Cairo to Tippoo Sultaun, 1799—Orders of Lord Mornington to the Indian

army—General Harris's Letter—Capture of Seringapatam—Death and interment of Tippoo, &c.

The population of the contiguous isles of France and *Bourbon* (this latter is now called *Reunion*) is said to have been 121,000 in the year 1799, and the military force 5000. Of the present (or recent) state of the agriculture of the former, we have an account from an inhabitant of the island, who arrived in London in 1800, which is as follows:

'The soil of this island is very diversified. Although, by its climate, it is adapted for all colonial productions, it has not equally answered to all the different kinds of cultivation which the inhabitants have endeavoured to naturalize. The plantations of coffee, being of the most simple culture, and requiring less expence and establishments, were the first which they adopted; but other objects of culture, such as cotton, having appeared more profitable, coffee has not become so general as it would otherwise have been. The cotton, which had promised such advantageous returns, has likewise been neglected in its turn, for the same reason; because the cultivation of indigo was become the most popular; but the great profit which the first sugar plantations afforded, has induced them to establish some wherever they could procure a quantity of water above the level of the earth, sufficient to work a sugar mill. Several sugar plantations have already proved successful, and many others are expected equally to succeed. Unfortunately, the mountains, though covered with fine trees, have been found, in certain spots, to have a white stone or rock too near the mould; but those who have suffered from this inconvenience have indemnified themselves, for the present, by felling woods.'

As the author, to use his own words, 'presents this history of the island which gave him birth to the country which affords him protection,' we are perfectly disposed to extend towards him the politeness which is due to a foreigner, and to excuse the verbal errors or defects of style which sometimes occur. Some contradictions are also observable in the different accounts; and perhaps, as the Viscount is a native of the island, and therefore able to appreciate the value of his different materials, he may be induced in future to form out of them a regular and unbroken history.

The maps accompanying this volume are well executed. Mo-y.

Art. X. *Poems, Epistolary, Lyric, and Elegiacal.* In three Parts. By the Rev. Thos. Maurice, A. M. Assistant Librarian of the British Museum. 8vo. pp 284. 9s. Boards. Wright. 1800.

Our readers and the public in general are well acquainted with the merits of Mr. Maurice as an author, and particularly as a poet; in which branch of literature, as most congenial

genial to the vivacity of youth, and peculiarly so to the ardour of *his* imagination, he first ventured to exert his powers and indulge his fancy. Most of the principal pieces in this volume have been formerly presented to the world, and mentioned in our review;—with regard to the smaller compositions now first printed, the author speaks with modesty, as being very early efforts which claim the exercise of candour and indulgence.

It is not necessary for us now to characterise the exertions of this gentleman's muse: her powers are sufficiently known, and generally acknowleged. It may suffice, therefore, on the present occasion, if we extract one or two of the poems contained in this volume;—and we shall first quote a production of some length, which possesses considerable merit:

'*Elegy written after sickness, and some time previous to taking orders.*

I.

From the drear confines of the yawning tomb
The deep, dark vale, where boding horror reigns,
Pale as some spectre of the midnight gloom,
The blood scarce circling through these languid veins,

II.

With rapture I emerge to life—to light—
And eager roll around my ardent gaze——
The flowers more fragrant bloom, the fields more bright,
While vernal nature all her pomp displays.

III.

Oh! with what transport does my throbbing heart
Bound at the sight of yon blue vault on high;
To view, once more, refulgent Phœbus dart
His crimson splendors through yon eastern sky;

IV.

Or, when bright Hesper glimmers from afar,
To mark the stars in radiant march advance;
And, 'midst their sparkling orbs pale Cynthia's car
In glory gliding through the vast expanse;

V.

What sudden transports, like the fever's glow,
Again, tumultuous, shoot through all my frame;
I feel my blood in brisker currents flow,
And fancy kindling with unwonted flame.

VI.

Sublime on eagle pinions soars my soul,
And now the dazzling galaxy I tread——
I see the ponderous globe beneath me roll,
And Ocean heaving on his mighty bed.

The

VII.

The splendid dream of wild illusion o'er,
Forlorn, through dreary solitudes I go;—
Deserted wander o'er some pathless shore,
Or toil in darkness through the drifted snow.

VIII.

Hence—hideous phantom – gender'd by despair!
Avaunt—and let my harass'd soul repose:
Descend Hygeia! to my ardent prayer,
Great Nature! all thy balmy sweets disclose!

IX.

On yonder mountain's brow that towers sublime,
A thousand fragrant shrubs salubrious bloom:
With day's first beam its verdant height I'll climb,
Bathe in their dew, and quaff their rich perfume.

X.

And oft at noon, through yon umbrageous vale,
Secure from Syrius' sultry rage I'll rove;
Once more, sweet sylvan scenes, I bid you hail,
Fair seats of pleasure, and soft haunts of love!

XI.

Snatch me, ye hills, ye streams, ye opening glades,
Where lusty youth perpetual health inhales!
Oh! plunge me deep in vast embowering shades,
Around me waft Arabia's fragrant gales!

XII.

Is it to hail me from that bed of pain,
Where late, with lingering tortures rack'd, I lay;
That Philomel exalts her loftiest strain,
And wilder raptures burst from every spray?

XIII.

Sweet bird! no more those thrilling notes prolong,
So soft a music dwells in every sound;
My feeble powers refuse to bear thy song,
And sink—amidst the dear delirium drown'd!

XIV.

Thus, in the mine's deep caverns long oppress'd,
The ransom'd slave looks round with wild surprise——
A flood of mingled passions storms his breast,
He views the lustre of the sun, and dies!

XV.

Ah me! methought I trod that shadowy land,
Where the still waters of oblivion glide;
A night of vapours veil'd the dusky strand,
And horror seem'd the howling blast to ride!

XVI.

With faltering foot, sunk eye, and wither'd look,
To the drear banks a ghastly train retir'd!
Some pin'd with agues, some with palsies shook,
These *melancholy* sunk, those *mania* fir'd!

XVII.

All the long train of woes to man assign'd
Rag'd, midst the throng that press'd the crowded shore;
Who lame, and halt, and impotent, and blind,
Plung'd in the torrent, and were heard no more!

XVIII.

Ah! sacred light, farewell thy golden beam!
And ye ætherial fires! farewell, I cried;
These are the bowers of death, and yon dark stream
Shall soon ingulph me in its roaring tide!

XIX.

Indulgent heaven forbade the threaten'd doom,
Nor gave my youth to fate's dark jaws a prey:
A ray of light broke through the tenfold gloom,
And led me back to rapture, and to day.

XX.

Grav'd on my heart the awful scene remains,
Nor more shall headstrong passion fire my youth,
The charm's dissolv'd that held my soul in chains,
And Folly withers at the frown of Truth!

XXI.

When late through every pulse, resistless rag'd,
The darting fever's unextinguish'd flame,
When no mild lenitives my pangs assuag'd,
And fierce convulsions shook my wither'd frame:

XXII.

Oh world! how worthless didst thou seem—how vain
All the gay pleasures of thy amplest range;
Then for one momentary pause from pain
Potosi's treasures were a cheap exchange.

XXIII.

Wealth, power, ambition, whither fled those charms,
Whose sway resistless binds our hapless race;
Ye, that so often rouse the world to arms,
And shake contending kingdoms to their base.

XXIV.

Say, ye soft syrens of the vanquish'd soul,
Ye Loves, ye Pleasures, whither did ye fly!
The early vigour of my youth ye stole,
Yet ah! in death your soothing aid deny.

XXV.

And ye who give the shell its power to charm,
The fabled offspring of high thundering Jove,
Who life of half its maladies disarm,
And teach the soul yon boundless spheres to rove:

XXVI.

Could ye no strain of magic influence pour,
Your pale, wan, votary's drooping head to rear,
Who fortune's proffer'd gifts for you forbore,
Nor heeded penury while the Muse was near!

XXVII.

All, all were mute – the Loves had wing'd their flight,
And every muse, and every pleasure fled——
Swift as the meteor of a summer's night,
And left a band of furies in their stead!

XXVIII.

In louder grief each gentler note was lost,
To soften pangs like mine surpass'd your art;
To gild Despair's fix'd brow no skill ye boast,
Or pluck the arrow from the wounded heart.

XXIX.

Midst the dark conflict, when with whirlwind force,
Each youthful folly rush'd upon my view;
When Sorrow wrung my soul, and keen Remorse
Painted those follies in their darkest hue——

XXX.

'Twas then the ETERNAL SIRE beheld my grief,
While Mercy's brightening beams his throne invest;
Hope, a winged cherub, sped to my relief,
And Faith's strong beam illum'd my pensive breast.

XXXI.

Come, ye pure joys which Piety supplies;
Come, rapturous visions! all my powers engage;
But chief when Vice is nigh, resistless rise,
Steel my firm soul, and warm with holy rage.

XXXII.

London! I bid thy guilty towers farewell!
Where sceptered Vice holds high her crimson hand;
Oh! for the cavern's gloom, the hermit's cell,
Or rather may I brave the storm and stand!

XXXIII.

All hail, RELIGION!—thou alone canst fire
Our kindling thoughts with views beyond the tomb;
To brighter plains by thee we dare aspire,
And snatch a foretaste of the world to come.

XXXIV.

Oh! still as through life's dreary vale I stray,
On my sad soul thy cheering influence pour;
That, guided by thy bright unerring ray,
My feet may gain at length that heavenly shore!'

We shall now copy a specimen of two of the minor compositions:

'*On two Sisters.*

'How often have I vow'd no woman's chain
Should bind my captivated soul again,
Yet who, fair Sisters, can repel the dart,
Or in your presence boast th' unconquer'd heart?
While, SALLY, thy maturer virtues warm,
And sense, sound judgment, and good humor charm;
Who can resist? and who but must admire,
JENNY, thy sprightly wit, and brilliant fire?
Oh! would the powers indulgent hear my prayer,
Guiltless *each* Sister's matchless charms to share,
By *bands Platonic* SALLY should be mine,
And JENNY crown my hopes at *Hymen's shrine*.'—

'*Epitaph on a Beautiful Infant.*

'Bright to the sun expands the vernal rose,
And sweet the lily of the valley blows;
Sudden impetuous whirlwinds sweep the sky,
They shed their fragrance, droop the head, and *die*.
Thus this fair infant, from life's storms retir'd,
Put forth fair blossoms, charm'd us, and *expir'd*.'

Mr. Maurice informs us that a number of the bantlings of his prolific Muse are yet wanderers from their parent, under the protection of different friends; and that, should the public smile on this assemblage, he hopes to be able to present a second exhibition to their notice and favour. G.

ART. XI. *An History of the original Parish of Whalley, and Honor of Clitheroe, in the Counties of Lancaster and York.* By Thomas Dunham Whitaker, LL. D. Fellow of the Society of Antiquaries. 4to. pp. 487. With Plates and Maps. 3l. 3s. Boards. Hatchard. 1801.

THE parish of Whalley and the honor of Clitheroe, in the counties of Lancaster and York, are certainly under great obligations to Dr. Whitaker for the consequence which he has bestowed on them by this elaborate work. They are traced back to the Brigantes; to an inferior tribe of that people, denominated by Ptolemy the *Setantii*, or rather *Segantii*, but called, by the anonymous Ravennas, *Sistuntiaci*, or more probably *Seguntiaci*. On this occasion, it is scarcely possible to refrain from adverting to the curious *etymon* of the old French chronicler,

nicler, who derives the term *Brigantes* from the antient Gaulic noun *brigands*; admitting which, it follows that this and many other parishes of England may boast the honor of as noble a descent as the city of Rome. The excellent British etymologist, Baxter, informs us that the *Seguntiaci*, considering their situation along the sources of numerous brooks, and of some considerable rivers, may have derived their name from *Se cond uï*, the head of the waters.—From this point of station, our historical horizon widens, and we have an extensive view of the soil and climate of the region around.

In the second chapter, intitled Roman history, the author calls in question the authority of Richard of Cirencester, and is very severe on some of our modern antiquaries. He fears that Mr. Whitaker, the historian of Manchester, has been led by that monk, with a friar's lantern, into many devious paths, through many bogs and brakes, in his bold and excursive wanderings over the Sistuntian monarchy; and Dr. Leigh, the historian of Lancashire, who is so unfortunate as to have no friendly monk to bear his sins, escapes not the "cutting censures of the critic's pen."

Memorials of the parish, during the Saxon æra, occupy the third chapter.

The second book opens with the general head of Ecclesiastical History. The foundation of the parent church is related from a traditional account preserved in the *Status de Blackburnshire*; the truth of which, however, is doubted by Dr. W., inasmuch as it declares that Augustine preached at Whalley, which the Doctor asserts to be a downright falsehood, since there is no probability that he ever was in Northumbria. Another fatal objection to this account is thus delivered: 'I do not highly esteem the character of *this man*;' (pretty familiar in speaking of a *saint!*) 'his conduct towards the Christian Britons proves him to have had the narrowest views in religion; and he was besides proud, superstitious, and addicted to an indelicate casuistry, which, in men devoted to celibacy, argues at least a contaminated imagination.' Nevertheless, *in one Christmas-day*, says a fragment quoted by Camden, *Austin baptized above ten thousand men, and consecrated the river Swale*, Dr. W., however, on the authority of Bede and other collateral testimonies, thinks that the anecdote rather relates to Paullinus, the known apostle of Northumbria, than to Augustine. Whichever of them it was that performed this duty, it must be allowed at least to have been a very hard day's work. 'The æra of this memorable event, the first preaching of the gospel at Whalley, may with an high degree of probability be fixed between the years 625 and 631.' This being premised, next follow long

and dry lists of abbots and monks, dates of the building of churches, hallowing of altars, receipts and expenditures of monasteries, rentals of estates, &c. From the article of various expences, it appears that the monks of the abbey of Whalley drank about eight pipes of red wine *per annum*, besides white wine; and that they laid in their red wine at 4l. per pipe: which is indeed a very moderate price in comparison with what both clergy and laity are obliged to pay for it in these later times. Another curious particular, which we learn from these records; is a charge *pro stipite Sancti Henrici.* Who is this St. Henry? No other than king Henry the VIth, who was actually adored at Windsor by the name of Holy King Henry. (Stowe's Ann. p. 424.) There is also a prayer addressed to Henry VI. in the *Horæ B. V. M. in usum Sarum*, printed by Wynkyn de Worde, A. D. 1502.—Under the head of provisions, appear, "Nutmuks; 1s.; succarcande 1s.; succar 9s." 'This (as Dr. W. justly observes) is a curious fact; as it proves that sugar was in use amongst us before the discovery of America; but the history of this great ingredient in modern luxury is far from being well ascertained. The sugar-cane, however, appears, from *Pancirollus de Rebus Inventis*, to have been grown in Sicily and manufactured at Venice, though probably in small quantities, some centuries before his time. But it was considered rather as a balsamic or pectoral medicine than an article of food.'

We cannot but remark the prodigious awe with which this antiquary approaches the tomb of a Lacey or a Stacey; though the beings themselves who bore these names, when alive, were perhaps of no more real benefit to mankind than the dust is at present into which their bodies have been decomposed. Let us hear with what unction the historian of the parish of Whalley puts up his pious orisons for the repose of the dust of the Laceys, after he had been laboriously digging in vain to find it:

'The remains of the Laceys, (says he,) wherever deposited after their removal from Stanlaw, had undoubtedly been preserved with religious reverence, and inclosed in magnificent tombs. But in these researches there were no appearances which justified even a conjecture, that we had discovered them. This investigation being ended, the several remains were deposited once more near the place of their original interment, and the ground was carefully smoothed above, that no vestiges of recent inequality might tempt the hand of idle curiosity, or of credulous avarice, to draw them once more from their hallowed abode.

'May they now rest in peace! *Requiescant in pace!* Amen. And, if the spirits which once animated that dust were capable of being disturbed by the momentary intrusion of respectful curiosity, may they be propitiated once more by this humble attempt to illustrate their mansion, and to perpetuate their memories in honour!'

Can there be a finer instance of devout fustian than this! and all excited because the Laceys happened to live in the parish of Whalley, and, dying rich, were buried honourably two or three hundred years ago!

The chapter on Ecclesiastical History concludes with the following extract from Stow's Chron. Ann. 1536-7.

'The 10th of March, John Paslew, bachelor of divinity, then being the five and twentieth abbot of Whalley, was executed at Lancaster; and the same day with him was hanged, drawn and quartered, John Eastgate, a monk of the same house, whose quarters were set up at divers towns in that shire; and on the 13th of March, William Hayddoke, a monk of Whalley, was hanged at Whalley, in the field called Pediam-guies, and there hanged a long time after. More about the same time, &c.'

Alas! this monastery is now in ruins; and a text of holy scripture is quoted as fortunately applicable to the purpose of lamentation: "We think upon her stones, and it pitieth us to see her in the dust." Psalm cii. Com. Pr. version.

We meet with nothing particularly remarkable in the short chapter intitled, Parish Church and Vicarage of Whalley, which contains a catalogue of the vicars from the year 1303 to 1772. On mentioning the exclusion of the Presbyterians from the pulpits, on the restoration, Dr. W. observes: 'Hence the formidable separation which took place, and hence in part the origin of modern sects, almost without number and without name, which threaten but too obviously the downfall of our civil and ecclesiastical establishment.'

Book III. commences with an account of the origin, progress, and ramifications of property. In the second chapter, the Laceys appear again, in all their glory; not indeed as

Inventas aut qui vitam excoluêre per artes,
Quique sui memores alios fecêre merendo,

but as memorable for more substantial properties, as lords of manors and possessors of grand revenues. One of them, however, early distinguished himself in such a manner as to induce a doubt in our minds, whether the author meant to include him likewise in his pious prayers for the repose of the departed family, not knowing whether his creed be as comprehensive as that of Origen: 'This Roger de Lacey,' says he, 'was the terror and scourge of the Welch; for his severe executions upon whom, together with the general ferocity of his temper, he was profanely denominated *Hell*.'

Then follow catalogues of the seneschals of Blackburnshire; a particular survey of the forests of Blackburnshire; and an account of witches. If the author does not believe in the exist-

ence of these præternatural beings, at least we will clear ourselves from any imputation of having asserted the contrary on unfounded inferences. Let us hear him:

'Of the system of witchcraft, the real defect is not in theory, but in evidence. A possibility that the bodies of men should sometimes be given up to infernal agency is no more to be denied, than that their souls should be exposed to infernal illusions. That such appearances should be exhibited in one age, and withdrawn in another, is equally the case with miracles. That they should not extend to all countries is common to them and to revelation itself. But all the modern instances of supposed witchcraft, which I have read of, are discredited either by the apparent fraud or folly of the witnesses. Were I to behold with my own eyes such circumstances as have often been related, or were they to be reported to me by a philosophical observer of perfect integrity on the evidence of *his* senses, I know not upon what principles I could refuse my assent to the conclusion that they were really the effects of diabolical power.'

On this passage, is the following note:

'That these opinions may not be accused of leaning too much to the doctrines of exploded superstition, I will take leave to refer my readers to the following sentiment of a great and enlightened modern divine. *That for any thing we know, he (the devil) may (still) operate in the way of possession, I do not see on what certain grounds any man can deny.* Bp. Hurd's Sermons, vol. iii. p. 239.'

An old room at Little Mitton so strikes the author's fancy, that he forbids any painter's brush or carpenter's hammer ever to come near it; enforcing his prohibition with the words of God himself in regard to his altar: "If thou lift up thy tool upon it, thou hast defiled it; Exod. xx. 25. We know not on what principles these ludicrous quotations from holy writ can be justified in an orthodox divine.

Part the second (for this ponderous history is divided into parts, books, and chapters,) is filled with genealogical tables, and extracts from rolls and charters; which, we doubt not, were very accurately drawn up, and are very faithfully extracted. Having turned over these, (for hard indeed would be our lot if it were necessary for us to read them,) we come to a pious lamentation on the decline of religion, apparent from the modern style in which epitaphs and wills are at present composed: the former consisting only of inflated panegyrics on intellectual attainments or relative virtues, on the profound scholar, the upright lawyer, the affectionate husband, the tender parent, the faithful subject, &c. without any thing like the old *priez pour son alme*, or the *orate pro animâ*, which was comfortable and edifying to the reader, and when thus the language of inscriptions seconded that of the pulpit. We fear, however, that, if religion be on the decline, it is not to be recovered by

such methods; even though the *priez* were to be repeated as often as in the following epitaph, which we recollect to have somewhere seen:

" *Bonnes gens, qui par icy passez,*
Priez Dieu pour les trespassez;
Bonnes gens qui passez par icy,
Priez pour ce pauvre homme-c'y.
Qui par icy passez, bonnes gens,
A prier Dieu soyez diligens,
Pour un certain maistre Gregoire,
Qui ne mourust que de trop boire."

Dr. Whitaker also laments the great and alarming increase of the Methodists, as being, if not detrimental to religion, at least highly dangerous to the church by law established; which he calls a power little able to enforce its own rights; for, continues he, 'it must not be dissembled that the government of the English church is at present too much under the influence of Erastian principles,—controlled, that is, by the civil power, in matters purely spiritual.'

Of the historian of the Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire, the historian of the parish of Whalley entertains no good opinion, with regard to the purity and sincerity of his mind; and he calls him a disingenuous writer. It is somewhat remarkable that, though he mentions Mr. Gibbon only twice, once to corroborate an assertion of his own, and again where he entirely coincides with him, he should go out of his way to seek these accusations against that celebrated author.

In one place, Dr. W. tells us that a country of dowagers may fairly be called a country of intemperance; for, in situations of life exempting men from dangerous or from sickly occupations, a sober husband will ordinarily survive a wife.—We should not be surprized if, in order to ascertain this fact, some person of a speculative turn should consult the parish registers concerning the survivals of the aldermen and the bishops; the latter being temperate and abstinent, and the former reputed to be addicted to good cheer.

At the conclusion of the volume, we find the following observation:

'Those opulent houses, whose property is not to be traced to a feudal origin, have been generally raised by the profession of the law. Some indeed have grown to consequence by habits of œconomy and gradual accumulation. But a new principle is now introduced, which threatens gradually to absorb the whole property of the district within its own vortex: I mean the principle of manufactures, aided by the discoveries lately made in the two dangerous sciences of chemistry and mechanics. The operation of this principle is accompanied with another effect, of which it is impossible to speak but in

the language at once of sorrow and indignation.—Indeed it can only be considered as so much pure, unmixed evil, moral, medical, religious, and political. In great manufactories, human corruption, accumulated in great masses, seems to undergo a kind of fermentation, which sublimes it to a degree of malignity not to be exceeded out of hell.'

The general style of this work is of that turgid species which is too commonly adopted by writers on topographical antiquities; and, in some parts, it so much resembles that of "The History and Antiquites of the antient Villa of Wheatfield, in the County of Suffolk," first printed in the year 1758*, that we were almost inclined to imagine that we were reading extracts from that celebrated performance. It is scarcely worth while to remark on some minor errors in diction: but the petulance and flippancy with which (especially in his notes) the Doctor treats writers who are engaged in similar pursuits, and who are not inferior to himself in attainments, when they happen to differ in opinion from him, cannot be passed over without observation. Yet we have an objection of a more serious nature to make. As Protestants, as glorying in being the children of the Reformation, can we behold, without emotions of extreme displeasure, any attempt, however feeble, to detract from the merits of the venerable fathers of the reformed church, under the stale pretext that the monarch by whom they were patronized was not actuated by the purest motives; or because, in the effusions of popular zeal, the monuments of superstition were defaced, and the shrines of idolatry overthrown? Let the remains of antiquity be preserved, as objects of taste: but surely we have no need to lament that the mansions of ignorance and sloth are deserted, or that the bulwarks of error and oppression are destroyed. The talents and virtues of the worthy patron of Whalley we have long been accustomed, as cordially as our author, to acknowlege and to revere; knowing, as we do, that he would be an honour to any profession of faith, and we heartily wish that he were of our's: but no true Protestant can condescend to do homage to popery, however embellished by private worth, nor consent to sacrifice his religion at the shrine of gratitude.

On the whole, we think that this performance by no means contributes to remove the ground of Bishop Warburton's complaint of the decay of our national taste for genuine historical composition, and of the growing prevalence of a vicious appetite in its stead; by which *any uninformed, senseless heap of rubbish, under the name of an history of a town, society, college, or province,*

* See Rev. vol. xix. p. 309.

has

has long since taken from us the very idea of a genuine composition.

The book is decorated with several picturesque views and other plates, which do credit to the taste and skill of the artists by whom they were drawn and engraved.

To-ke.

ART. XII. *The History, civil and commercial, of the British Colonies in the West Indies.* By Bryan Edwards, Esq. F. R. S. S. A. Vol. III. with Plates. 4to. pp. 500. 1l. 5s. Boards. Stockdale. 1801.

NOTWITHSTANDING the termination of the war with respect to ourselves, we still look with some anxiety towards the West Indies; and the principal contents of the volume before us, referring to a spot now the theatre of devastation and carnage, cannot fail to excite a considerable degree of interest. The well earned reputation of the justly lamented author, also, will stamp a value on this history, and induce readers to peruse its details with satisfaction and with confidence. It must be with pain, indeed, that we turn our thoughts to this part of the globe, where blood still continues to flow, and where the hostility of the climate is even more destructive to Europeans than that of the sword:—but, whatever be the state of our particular feelings and sentiments, our unvarying object is truth; and those publications are peculiarly acceptable to us, of which the contents are accommodated to existing circumstances, and enable us to judge with some degree of accuracy respecting the political transactions of the times.

This completion of Mr. Edwards's history of the West Indies* consists, for the most part, of a republication of his *Historical Survey* of the pestiferous and blood-stained *Island of St. Domingo*, which we announced in M. R. vol. XXIII. p. 77.—186. N. S. The volume was prepared for publication by himself: but, in the words of the editor, 'ere the last sheet was revised from the press, Bryan Edwards was no more!'—and the office of putting the finishing hand, and editing the whole, devolved on his friend, Sir William Young, who has performed his task with perfect delicacy, integrity, and honour; though not, perhaps, in so full a manner as would have completely gratified the curiosity of the public.

The Editor informs us that, when Mr. Edwards perceived his dissolution approaching, he exerted the last remains of strength in preparing a hasty sketch of his life, to be prefixed

---

* For our account of Vols. 1 and 2, see M. R. Vols. XIV. XV. and XVII. N. S.

to

to this volume; and Sir William offers the following apology for making no addition to that brief memoir:

'Those, who knew and were intimate with Mr. BRYAN EDWARDS, will recognize, in this short account of himself, the energy of mind, the industry, and the truth, which characterized his conversations and his life; but all must allow, and some must object, that much therein is omitted, which has usual and proper place in biography, and which the editor might be presumed, or be called upon, to supply. Some account might be required, of his literary essays and legislative acts, so efficient in the cause of humanity towards the negroes, whilst a member of the assembly in Jamaica.—Some account might be demanded, of this good and independent man, whilst a member of the British parliament; and, especially, in the posthumous life of a literary man, some accurate detail of his literary pursuits and writings might be expected; of BRYAN EDWARDS,—of his Correspondence,—of his Essays,—and of his conduct in the judicious compilation and elegant recital of the Travels of Mungoe Park,—and, especially, of the origin and progress of the great work herewith submitted to the publick.—To these, and other points, the recollection of the reader is thus awakened. The Editor presumes no farther. He cannot venture to alter, or add to, the sacred deposit committed to his charge,—and now gives it to the publick, as its author left, and *willed* it, to be given.'

As a testimony of respect to the memory of Mr. Edwards, whose worth we knew and valued, as well as for the gratification of our readers, we shall extract this biographical sketch:

'I was born the 21st of May 1743, in the decayed town of Westbury, in the county of Wilts. My father inherited a small paternal estate in the neighbourhood, of about 100l. per annum; which proving but a scanty maintenance for a large family, he undertook, without any knowledge of the business, as I have been informed, to deal in corn and malt, but with very little success. He died in 1756, leaving my excellent mother, and six children, in distressed circumstances.—Luckily for my mother, she had two opulent brothers in the West Indies, one of them a wise and worthy man, of a liberal mind, and princely fortune. This was Zackary Bayly, of the Island of Jamaica, who, on the death of my father, took my mother and her family under his protection, and, as I was the eldest son, directed that I should be well educated. I had been placed by my father at the school of a dissenting minister in Bristol, whose name was William Foot, of whom I remember enough, to believe that he was both a learned and good man, but, by a strange absurdity, he was forbidden to teach me Latin and Greek, and directed to confine my studies to writing, arithmetic, and the English grammar. I should therefore have had little to do, but that the schoolmaster had an excellent method of making the boys write letters to him on different subjects, such as, the beauty and dignity of truth, the obligation of a religious life, the benefits of good educatiou, the mischief of idleness, &c. &c. previously stating to them the chief arguments to be urged; and insisting

insisting on correctness in orthography and grammar. In this employment, I had sometimes the good fortune to excel the other boys; and when this happened, my master never failed to praise me very liberally before them all; and he would frequently transmit my letters to my father and mother.—This excited in my mind a spirit of emulation, and, I believe, gave me the first taste for correct and elegant composition. I acquired, however, all this time, but very little learning; and when my uncle (on my father's death) took me under his protection, his agent in Bristol considered me as neglected by Mr. Foot, and immediately removed me to a French boarding school in the same city, where I soon obtained the French language, and, having access to a circulating library, I acquired a passion for books, which has since become the solace of my life.

'In 1759, a younger and the only brother of my great and good uncle came to England, and, settling in London, took me to reside with him, in a high and elegant style of life. He was a representative in Parliament for Abingdon, and afterwards for his native town. —Farther I cannot speak of him so favourably as I could wish, for I remember that, at the period I allude to, his conduct towards me was such as not to inspire me with much respect: he perceived it, and soon after, in the latter end of the same year, sent me to Jamaica. —This proved a happy and fortunate change in my life, for I found my eldest uncle the reverse, in every possible circumstance, of his brother. To the most enlarged and enlightened mind he added the sweetest temper, and the most generous disposition. His tenderness towards me was excessive, and I regarded him with more than filial affection and veneration. Observing my passion for books, and thinking favourably of my capacity, he engaged a clergyman (my loved and ever to be lamented friend Isaac Teale) to reside in his family, chiefly to supply by his instructions my deficiency in the learned languages. Mr. Teale had been master of a free grammar school, and besides being a most accomplished scholar, possessed an exquisite taste for poetry, of which the reader will be convinced by referring to the Gentleman's Magazine, for August 1771, the beautiful copy of verses, there first published, called "The Compliment of the Day," being of his composition.—I dare not say, however, that I made any great progress in the languages under his tuition; I acquired "*small Latin and less Greek;*" even now, I find it difficult to read the Roman poets in their own language. The case was, that not having been grounded in the Latin grammar at an earlier period of life, I found the study of it insupportably disgusting, after I had acquired a taste for the beauties of fine writing. Poetry was our chief amusement; for my friend, as well as myself, preferred the charms of Dryden and Pope, to the dull drudgery of poring over syntax and prosody*. We preferred belles lettres.—We laughed away many a happy hour over the plays of Molière, and wrote verses on local and temporary subjects, which we sometimes published in the Colonial newspapers. Yet the Latin classicks were not altogether neglected; my friend delighted to point out to me the beauties

* Vide Armstrong.

of

of Horace, and would frequently impose on me the task of translating an ode into English verse, which, with his assistance in construing the words, I sometimes accomplished.

'Having made myself known to the publick by my writings, it is probable that after I am in the grave, some collector of anecdotes, or biographical compiler, may pretend to furnish some particulars concerning my life and manners. It is not pleasant to think that misrepresentation or malice may fasten on my memory; and I have therefore made it the amusement of an idle hour, to compile a short account of myself. My personal history, however, is of little importance to the world. It will furnish no diversified scenes of fortune, nor relate many circumstances of myself, worth remembering. Yet I feel the fond ambition of an Author, and am willing to hope, that those who have read my book with approbation, will be glad to know something farther concerning me;

For who, to dumb forgetfulness a prey, &c.

For the satisfaction then of such kind readers (if such there are) and the information of my posterity, I have drawn up this paper, which I desire my Bookseller to prefix to the next Edition of my History of the West Indies.

B. E.'

This is indeed merely a sketch; and surely without infringing the sacred deposit committed to his charge, the editor might have supplied, in an additional preface, the particulars which are wanting to complete this rapid and unadorned outline. Sir William, however, justly embalms the memory of his friend, by asserting the firmness of his mind, the cheerfulness of his temper, and his claim to the character of "a benevolent and upright man."

One of the most prominent features of upright and noble minds is a promptitude in acknowleging a fault, and in correcting any error or mistake into which they may have been betrayed. An instance of this ingenuousness and candour is displayed by Mr. Edwards, in the advertisement which he prepared to be prefixed to this volume. Having been led by the report of the French colonists, to reflect on the character of M. Augustus de Grasse (son of the late gallant Admiral Comte de Grasse), he now makes the following public reparation:

'In a paper formerly transmitted to me from St. Domingo, and annexed to the 8th chapter of my work, intitled, *Notes sur l'Evenement du Cap*, this gentleman was unjustly charged with having been present at the destruction of that town by the rebel negroes, aiding, abetting, and co-operating with their chiefs. I am now convinced that this atrocious charge is altogether groundless, and I cannot sufficiently express the concern I feel on reflecting, that I was made the instrument of conveying it to the press.—I have therefore, in this edition,

edition, not only reprinted the sheet, and omitted the calumny, but I insert in this place, with great satisfaction, a certificate, which M. DE GRASSE has transmitted to me, in a very polite letter, from South Carolina, dated the 22d of October 1799.'

We cannot make room for the certificate, which is in French, and of considerable length.—The remainder of this advertisement is occupied by remarks exculpatory of the conduct of the French planters at St. Domingo, on the occasion of the first arrival of British troops: but this subject would not be particularly interesting to our readers.

The Historical Survey of St. Domingo, with the additional notes and illustrations, occupies 258 pages of this volume; and then succeeds *A Tour through the several Islands of Barbadoes, St. Vincent, Antigua, Tobago, and Grenada*, in the years 1791 and 1792, by Sir William Young, Bart. This journal is written in a sprightly and entertaining manner; and though we cannot lead the reader minutely through these rambles, we shall give one specimen of the author's mode of delineating West Indian scenery and negro politeness. Describing St. Vincent's, he says:

'The vale of Buccament brings to mind the happy and secluded valley of Rasselas, prince of Abyssinia. The valley, containing about 3,000 acres, is hemmed in on each side by towering hills, whose steep ascents have in parts peeled off or split in the storm, and now are left precipices of bare rock, appearing between streaks of the highest verdure, from which occasionally shoots the *mountain cabbage-tree* *. In the centre of the valley stands an insulated mountain, whose height, through an interstice in the rugged boundary of the vale, looks down on the garrison of Berkshire hill, and Berkshire hill is 627 feet above the sea. The hills or rocks that shut in the valley, again command the hill in the centre. Down the vale runs a fine and rapid river, abounding with the finest mullet and other fish; its bed is obstructed with fragments of rocks from the skirting mountains. Its murmurs fill the vale. It winds round the centre hill, and then pours straight into the sea. The valley, as it coasts the sea, is about one mile over. It stretches inland about five miles; its greatest breadth, half-way from the sea, is two miles. From the mount, in the centre, it forms a most luxuriant picture of cultivation, contrasted with romantic views, and seems wholly secluded from all the world. My Pembroke estate takes in the hill in the centre, and thence runs along the river side, comprehending all the valley on one side, to within a quarter of a mile of the sea.

'A negro gave signal of my approach to the house, and all the negroes came forth to greet me, and with a welcome as warm as that at Calliaqua. They caught hold of my bridle, my feet, and my coat; every one anxious for a share in leading me up to the house; and indeed they attempted to take me off my horse and carry me, but I begged them to desist.

'* Called also the *Palmeto-Royal*.'

'Friday,

'Friday, Jan. 6. I visited Berkshire hill, and went over the fortifications. The hill itself is a rock, and, from its precipices, is scarcely assailable; where it is so, parts have been cut away, and, take art and nature together, the place may be deemed impregnable. The point above hath been flatted off, so as to admit room on its surface for most commodious barracks for a complete regiment, stores, reservoirs, &c. all bomb-proof. In my different excursions, I continued to inspect the persons of the negroes, and I can assert, that not one in fifty of those I have seen has been marked with the whip, with exception to the gang employed at the public works on Berkshire hill. This gang may be supposed to consist for the most part of reprobate and bad negroes, who have been sold from estates for riddance of their practices and examples. They chiefly belong, as an entire gang, to the overseer of the works, who may be supposed to pick them up cheap, being bad characters, though competent to their business, under the control of the military. The inhabitants, not willing to send their able men to the public works, for fear of evil communication, commute their quota of labourers, by paying the overseer a certain sum to find others in their room.

'Friday, January 13, 1792. The Charaibe chief of all, *Chatoyer*, with his brother *du Vallee*, and six of their sons, came to pay me a visit, and brought their presents; a stool of Charaibe workmanship, and a very large cock turkey of the wild breed, which with a hen I mean for England. Chatoyer and du Vallee were well dressed; as a mark of respect, they came without arms. We had much conversation with them, and I gave in return a silver mounted hanger to Chatoyer, and a powder horn to du Vallee. The latter is possessed of nine negro slaves, and has a cotton plantation. He is the most enlightened of the Charaibes, and may be termed the founder of civilization among them. Chatoyer and his sons dined at the villa, and drank each a bottle of claret. In the evening they departed in high glee, with many expressions of friendship.'

Subjoined are Mr. Edwards's Observations on the Disposition, Character, Manners, and Habits of Life among the Maroon Negroes of Jamaica; which were published separately in 1796, and of which we gave an account in M. R. vol. xxi. p. 414. N. S.

To this paper are affixed Appendices relative to the Sugar Ant of the Island of Grenada, by John Castles, Esq. and on the Cultivation of the Clove Tree in the Island of Dominica, by William Hobson Buée, Esq.—together with a postscript to the Historical Survey of St. Domingo, containing a brief review of the transactions and condition of the British army there, during the years 1795, 6, 7, and 8, until the final evacuation of the country. Every true Briton must peruse these details with sorrow.—The mortality among our troops, and the loss of lives, in this ill-fated expedition, having been lately mentioned in the Houses of Parliament, we shall transcribe a part of what Mr. Edwards advances on this melancholy subject;

'Towards

'Towards the latter end of April 1795, the 81st and 96th regiments (consisting together of 1,700 men) arrived from Ireland; the 82d, from Gibraltar, landed 980 men in August; and in April 1796, the 66th and 69th regiments, consisting of 1,000 men each, with 150 artillery, arrived from the same place, under the command of General Bowyer: so that the whole number of effective men which had landed in St. Domingo, down to this period, (including some small detachments sent up at different times from Jamaica,) amounted to 9,800. In June following, four regiments of infantry, and a part of two others *, arrived from Cork, under the command of General Whyte. These were soon afterwards followed by seven regiments of British †, together with three regiments of foreign cavalry ‡; besides two companies of British, and a detachment of Dutch artillery; making in the whole a farther reinforcement of about 7,900 §.

'But what avail the best concerted schemes of human policy against the dispensations of Divine Providence? A great part of these gallant troops, most of them in the bloom of youth, were conveyed, with little intermission, from the ships to the hospital—from the hospital to the grave! Of the 82d regiment, no less than 630 became victims to the climate, within the short space of ten weeks after their landing. In one of its companies, no more than three rank and file were fit for duty. Hompesch's regiment of hussars were reduced, in little more than two months, from 1,000 to 300; *and the 96th regiment perished to a man!* By the 30th of September, 1796, the registers of mortality displayed a mournful diminution of no less than 7,530 of the British forces only; and towards the latter end of 1797, out of the whole number of troops, British and foreign, which had landed and were detained in this devoted country, during that and the two preceding years, (certainly not far short of 15,000 men,) I am assured that not more than 3,000 were left alive and in a condition for service ‖.'

Of Toussaint the following notice is taken:

'This man, at the commencement of the revolt in 1791, was a slave to Monsieur Noé, a considerable planter in the neighbourhood of Cape François, now residing in London. Having taken an active part in the rebellion, Toussaint had acquired, in a short time, great weight among the negroes, and at length obtained such an ascendancy among his adherents, as invested him with absolute and undisputed authority over them. His attachment however to the French government was thought extremely doubtful; and, in truth, he seemed to have no other immediate object in view, than that of

'* The 17th, 32d, 56th, and 67th, with part of the 93d and 99th.'

'† The 13th, 14th, 17th, 18th, 21st, 26th, and 29th.'

'‡ The York, Hompesch, and Rouen Hussars.'

'§ Out of this number are however to be deducted the 32d infantry and the 26th dragoons; the former of which were sent from St. Domingo to Bahama, and the latter to the Windward Islands.'

'‖ The loss of seamen in the ships employed on the coast is not included. It may be stated very moderately at 5,000 men.'

consolidating

consolidating his own power, and securing the freedom of his fellow negroes. His black army in 1797 was estimated at 18,000 infantry, and a troop of horse of about 1,000.'

The volume concludes with an unfinished history of the war in the West Indies, from its commencement in February 1793, to the cruelties of Victor Hugues in 1794.

This sketch of the contents of the present publication, we imagine, will be sufficient to recommend it to our readers. The luxuriant climate of the West India islands is beautiful in description: but, while the mortality of our troops at St. Domingo is recollected, we shall not envy our late enemies their present contest with Toussaint for its supremacy.

Several plates and maps decorate the volume, among which is a portrait of its highly respectable and ingenious author.

Mo.y

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For MAY, 1802.

CHEMISTRY, MINERALOGY, &c.

Art. 13. *Some Experiments and Observations on Sigr. Volta's Electrical Pile,* clearly elucidating all the Phenomena.—Also observations on Dr. Herschell's Paper on Light and Heat, with other Remarks. By Robert Harrington, M. D. 8vo. 3s. sewed. Cadell jun. and Davies. 1801.

THIS is certainly a very jocular age, since the work before us shews that even the profound and useful science of chemistry cannot escape the shafts of modern waggery; and it must be confessed that the present author possesses facetiousness in an uncommon and supreme degree.—One or two of his former productions, which we have occasionally seen, at first appeared to have been seriously written by some wrong headed *soi-disant* chemist: but the present publication so much surpasses in excentricity all possible conception, that the mystery is at length unravelled. It is to be lamented, however, that the joke must be confined to chemical readers: though, as we have lately given an account of two recent editions of the more popular jest books, intitled the Old and the New Joe Miller, the generality of lovers of drollery will the less regret their incompetency to relish the humour of the comico-chemico Dr. Harrington.

Hal

Art. 14. *Outlines of a Course of Lectures on Chemistry.* By T. Garnett, M. D. &c. &c. 8vo. pp. 212. 5s. Boards. Cadell jun. and Davies. 1801.

These outlines were read at the Royal Institution, while the author exercised the office of a professor in that establishment. They will probably be useful to students in chemistry: but, as we formerly observed on a similar publication of this gentleman, the work appears too copious for a syllabus, and by much too small for a manual.

D.

Art.

Art. 15. *The Mineralogy of Derbyshire*, with a Description of the most interesting Mines, in the North of England, in Scotland, and in Wales.—Subjoined is a Glossary of the Terms and Phrases used by Miners in Derbyshire. By John Mawe. 8vo. pp. 211. 6s. Boards. W. Phillips, &c. 1802.

This work contains a short account of the mines in Derbyshire and in some parts of Scotland, as well as of the salt mine at Northwich, and of the Parrys copper mine. Although it displays but little Mineralogical Science, it may certainly be consulted with advantage by those who intend to visit the mines and the natural curiosities of Derbyshire. **Hatch.**

MEDICAL, &c.

Art. 16. *Cases of Phthisis Pulmonalis*, successfully treated, upon the Tonic Plan; with introductory Observations. By Charles Pears, F.M.S. F.L.S. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Murray and Highley. 1801.

This writer is extremely sanguine in his expectations from the use of tonics and nourishing diet, in pulmonary consumption. He has not, however, discriminated that species of the disease, in which many eminent physicians have already advised this practice, from the florid consumption, in which it is allowed to be prejudicial. Yet, from Mr. Pears's description of the pulse which characterizes phthisis, it is evident that his observations have been confined to the scrophulous species; and it is equally obvious that he is not acquainted with the writings of Dr. Read, and others, who have of late years recommended the very plan adopted by Mr. Pears.

In truth, Mr. Pears's essay shews that he is a very young writer; an observer excessively sanguine; and that he must have mistaken catarrhal complaints, in many instances, for phthisis. In order to convince experienced practitioners of the truth of these remarks, we need only quote Mr. Pears's *canons* respecting the disease:

'The amendment in this disease, under the treatment recommended, generally begins about the third or fourth day: its progress is usually regular and uniform; but sometimes it proceeds by alternate days of progression and sameness of station. A very rapid amendment seldom continues, and is dangerous.

'Thus idiopathic phthisis is cureable in almost every stage. Incipient cases are hardly dangerous. Relief is always attainable. The following pages evince these facts.'

Happy would it be for mankind, if these comfortable assertions could be realized! but the experience of all physicians stands in direct contradiction to them.

So little preparatory knowlege has Mr. P. brought to this important discussion, that he takes no notice of the very common practice of exhibiting Dr. Griffiths's mixture, or some equivalent remedy.

It is painful but necessary to observe, also, that the *formulæ* introduced in the cases betray a surprising deficiency in the knowlege of Latin. When we first met with this direction, '*Cap. quando tussi urgenti*,' p. 18, we concluded that here must be an error of the press: but we find this ridiculous blunder in so many of the

pages, and with such strange adjuncts*, that we can impute the fault only to the author himself.

Mr. Pears professes to have no object in view but truth; and we are fully disposed to believe him. We fear that he will therefore be convinced, in a short time, that he has been too much elated by some illusory cases, and that he will find himself baffled by genuine pulmonary consumption, in common with the most eminent practitioners of all countries and times. Per.

Art. 17. *New Progress of Surgery in France;* or Phænomena in the Animal Kingdom. Published by Command of the French Government. Translated from the French of Imbert Delonnes, M. D. By T. Chavernac, Surgeon. Embellished with very curious Plates by W. Nutter. 4to. 4s. Kay. 1801.

The first fact contained in this essay, which opens with an unnecessary pomp of pretension, is the removal of a very large sarcocele by the knife. M. Delonnes had the merit of determining on the operation, and of performing it with success, in opposition to the sentiments of a numerous consultation of surgeons.—The second fact relates to the removal of a very large excresence from the nose: which was also performed by the knife. These cases are remarkable, and deserve to be recorded, on account of the enormous progress which the diseases had made in them: but they will scarcely be regarded as conveying much novelty, either in doctrine or practice, by professional men in this country. Similar masses of diseased parts have been removed by English surgeons, who have not arrogated the title of discoverers, which M. Delonnes has assumed on this occasion. The untoward events of late years have unhappily interrupted the communication between men of science in both countries: but, since the halcyon days of peace are at length restored, we may hope that the improvements of surgery, as well as of other branches of knowlege, will be more readily interchanged. It may then be found that similar trains of reasoning have been adopted, under similar circumstances, by men who had no opportunity of becoming acquainted with each others' opinion; and a satisfactory corroboration may thus be obtained. Dº

POETRY, &c.

Art. 18. *A Translation of Geddes's Ode to Peace.* By John Ring. 4to. 1s. 6d. Johnson, &c.

As we do not recollect to have seen the printed original of this poem, we cannot satisfactorily judge of the merit of the performance before us as a translation. On the whole, however, we may venture to say that the work reflects no disgrace on the memory of the lately deceased author; who was not permitted long to enjoy the blessings which are here so feelingly and poetically displayed.—The learned Doctor was fond of occasionally relieving the severity of his more serious studies, by softer and sweeter converse with the *Tuneful Nine*; and they were not always unfavourable to his *devoirs*. Mr. Ring

* For example, Cap. *cum* tussi urgenti—Capt. *ut* tussi urgenti. In p. 81, we find, Tinct. opii. gutt. x. *in Vinum* ℥j—!

informs us, in his prefatory advertisement, that as 'the original was the last poetical production of a Geddes, it will not prove unacceptable to such as regret his loss, and revere his memory.' We may add, that the number of the worthy author's admirers does not appear to be small. He had, indeed, some characteristic peculiarities: but we, who had the pleasure of a personal acquaintance with him, cannot refuse our assent to the truth and justice of the praises which Mr. R. bestows on him, in the following words, extracted from the advertisement already quoted; 'The name of the reverend author of the Ode to Peace will never be pronounced without respect, while civil and religious liberty are deemed worthy of regard; or, while genius, learning, and liberality of sentiment, are held in honour.'—We shall give a short specimen of the Ode, in which the social and friendly disposition of the ingenious and good-humoured author are pleasingly manifested. The lines are copied from his well imagined enumeration of the expected happy consequences of *the peace:*

'We now discern the sullen brow no more,
Nor meet the frowning visage as before;
On PEACE the people ev'ry thought employ,
And wear a smile of universal joy.

'No more suspicion lurks within the breast,
But open arms receive the welcome guest,
Each Briton now his fellow Briton greets,
And meets new joys in ev'ry friend he meets.'

Art. 19. *An Elegy to the Memory of the late Duke of Bedford.* Written on the Evening of his Interment. By Mrs. Opie. 4to. 1s. Longman and Rees.

This ingenious lady's feelings, on the mournful subject which here employs the Muse of woe, are generally expressed in warm and harmonious numbers; for instance,

'To thee, lamented shade, the Muse shall raise
The ardent song of unsuspected praise;
Hers the soft pensive pleasure to impart,
The genuine feelings of no venal heart,
And with the honours that bedeck thy bier
Mix the pure incense of a soul sincere.
Yet hard the task:—While busy memory flies
To the great day when first thou mett'st my eyes,
Oh! dreadful contrast! fancy's restless power
That moment paints thee in thy dying hour,
Till the sad scene my shuddering soul appalls,
And from my grasp the Muse's pencil falls.'

The poem, however, does not thus conclude, for it is here only just begun. The rest of the Elegy is employed in celebrating the truly noble and illustrious House of Russel.

Art. 20. *An Elegy on his Grace Francis the late Duke of Bedford.* By Thomas Rodd. 4to. 1s. Ridgway.

Had Mr. Rodd been as happy in the execution of his design of celebrating the merits of the Bedford family, as he was in his choice

of a subject for panegyric, we should have gladly paid him our tribute of praise for his performance. His zeal, however, is to be commended, because it seems to be purely patriotic.

Art. 21. *Ode to Peace*; to which is added, *The Negro's Appeal.* By John Henry Colls. 4to. 1s. Longman.

The blessings of peace are here sung in no mean nor inelegant strains, and men and things are generally described and enumerated as partaking of those enjoyments;—thus, for example,

'Lo! Science plumes her drooping wing,
And all the Arts their treasures bring,
To grace *Britannia's* throne;—
The flag of commerce flies unfurl'd,
And half the riches of the world
Already seem her own!'

The *Negro's Appeal* to justice and humanity involves the piteous tale of a once happy African, who was kidnapped and enslaved by European avarice and treachery. The distressing particulars of the injury, and its consequent miseries, are recited in numbers which are not destitute of either pathos or elegance.

Art. 22. *The Island of Innocence;* a Poetical Epistle to a Friend. By Peter Pindar, Esq. Part the First. 4to. 1s. 6d. Dean. 1802.

We hope that Peter will not insert us in his catalogue of '*Brutes*,' if we intimate to him that neither much originality nor any great brilliancy of genius is displayed in this poem. It is conceived exactly on the plan of Juvenal's second Satire, which Dr. Johnson imitated in his "London." The poet first describes the perfect happiness of a friend, who had betaken himself with his family to a little island in the gulf of Mexico; where squirrels and hares live in fearless security; and where man must subsist entirely on vegetables, since neither the beasts of the wood nor the birds of the air, nor the inhabitants of the stream, are to be robbed of life or disturbed in their enjoyments. He then contrasts this scene of trans-atlantic rural pleasure with the vices, cruelties, and miseries of the London world.—We shall place together his delineation of the *Island of Innocence* in the Gulf of Mexico, and his Picture of modern London:

'To thee, my FRIEND, amid that peaceful ISLE
Where bounteous NATURE blooms with sweetest smile;
Where never WINTER, on his northern blast,
Howls on the hill, and lays the valley waste;
O'er a pale sun, the cloud of horror throws,
And buries NATURE in his vast of snows:
Ah, no! where endless SUMMER, ever gay,
Opes a pure ether to the ORB of Day;
That gilds the tree, and flower, and grassy blade,
And works his threads of gold in ev'ry glade:
To THEE, my FRIEND, where shrubs of incense rise,
And pour their grateful fragrance to the skies;

Where

Where rills, in wanton mazes, wind away,
Diffusing health and plenty, as they play;
Where the rich treasures of the pine reside,
And orange-branches bend with golden pride;
Where from the boughs of odour, mingled notes
Of rapture warble from a thousand throats;
And blest, from vale to vale the cooing dove
Wings with his mate, and teaches Man to love;
To THEE I yield the MUSE's artless line,
And envy all the blessings that are thine.'——

'Oh! paint our Dungeons, where, with putrid breath,
The wretch desponding pants, and sighs for Death:
Paint the poor Felon, doom'd, ah! doom'd to die,
Wan the pale cheek, and horror-struck the eye;
With languid limbs that droop to earth in pain,
Press'd, loaded, lab'ring with a clanking chain;
While, on the stillness of the midnight air,
Sad moans the voice of MIS'RY and DESPAIR:
Paint all the horrors of the midnight shade,
THEFT's iron crow, and MURDER's reeking blade.
Paint the poor objects that we hourly meet,
The wrecks of BEAUTY crowding ev'ry street;
DAUGHTERS of INNOCENCE, ere Demon Art
Won on the weakness of too soft a heart;
And doom'd to infamy the tender kiss,
Due to pure LOVE alone and wedded bliss:
Paint COURTS, whose sorceries, too seducing, bind
In chains, in shameful slavish chains, the mind;
COURTS, where unblushing FLATT'RY finds the way,
And casts a cloud o'er TRUTH's eternal ray:
And quote the SAGE, who COURTS had serv'd and known:—
" O CRASSUS, let me fly, and live alone:
Though much I love thee, let our commerce end,
Nor from his solitude recall thy Friend.
Thanks to the Gods, my servile hours are o'er,
And, oh! let MEM'RY mention Courts no more!"

Had P. P. given us an *Argument* in his usual manner, he would probably have told us that the author piously concludes with comparing himself to St. Paul; for know, gentle reader, that he informs us that, as the Apostle fought with *beasts* at Ephesus, so he (Peter) has encountered the *brutes* of Paternoster Row.—As Milton calls his antagonists " owls and cuckows, asses, apes and dogs," Peter, in imitation of such poetical politeness, denominates his opposers

' —Lions, monkeys, bulls, and bears.'

After a conflict with such formidable beasts, we congratulate him on being alive to tell the wonderous tale.

In general, we have seen little reason for complaining of incongruous epithets in this writer's effusions: but we cannot admit the '*crawling* of a willow,' unless he will allow of the critical acumen of a potatoe.

Mo-y.

Art. 23. *Il Como, Favola Boschereccia* * ; i. e. COMUS, A Mask. By John Milton. Translated into Italian by Gætano Polidrio. Crown 8vo. Dulau. 1802.

We remarked some time ago † that Sigr. Mariottini, in translating Milton's Paradise Lost, had made it more an Italian than an English poem, by trying to transfuse the *spirit* of the original into the idiom and poetical language of his own country, without aiming at a literal translation of our phraseology and poetical forms of speech ;—and this seems to have been the wish of Sigr. Polidori in his version of Comus, which is often free, spirited, and poetical, *alla Italiana* ; though seldom sufficiently close and literal for an Englishman to follow. Though, however, an English reader of this version may perceive the absence of many idioms and national forms of expression which Milton has embalmed for the use of his countrymen ; yet, if literally rendered, they would be unintelligible to an Italian. Englishmen will always prefer the original to a copy, unless as a matter of curiosity, and a lesson in learning language.

The opening is reasonably close, and, by a little paraphrastic assistance, tolerably intelligible :

" Before the starry threshold of Jove's court
My mansion is, where those immortal shapes
Of bright aëreal spirits live inspher'd,
In regions mild of calm and serene air,
Above the smoke and stir of this dim spot,
Which men call earth, and with low-thoughted care
Confin'd, and pester'd in this pinfold here,
Strive to keep up a frail and feverish being,
Unmindful of the crown that Virtue gives,
After this mortal change, to her true servants,
Among the enthron'd gods on sainted seats."

" *Di Giove innanzi alla stellata soglia*
Nella reggia celeste, ove immortali
Splendide forme in placida regione
D'aria calma e serena, in bei drappelli
Sen stanno, è pur la mia magion. Di questo
Loco ingombrò di tenebre e d'orrore,
Che l'uom nomina Terra, a noi giammai
La caligin non giunge ; eppure in essa
Terra, a noi quasi impercettibil punto,
Strambasciati si affannano i mortali
In basse cure, a sostenere intenti
L'inferma e fragil vita ; affatto immemori
Della corona che Virtute serba
A' suoi fidi seguaci, allor che l'alma,
Il suo peso mortal lasciato in terra,

* We should, perhaps, translate this word *rural*, as its nearest equivalent in English. The Italians have appropriate for almost every profession and occupation : as *Piscatory*, for fishermen, *Boschereccia*, for those who are occupied in woods, forests, &c.

† N. S. vol. xviii. p. 528.

Sia

Sia salita nel cielo, ed infra i numi
Abbia pur ella il suo beato scanno.'

The song of *Sweet Echo*, so replete with beautiful imagery, was so difficult to set, that Lawes was unable to furnish it with an air that was either graceful or pleasing; though Dr. Arne, a century later, produced one which possessed both those qualities in an eminent degree *. Sigr. Polidori's version of this song is no more happy than Henry Lawes's melody.—In setting this song, Arne for once furnished a model to Handel, when he composed *Sweet Bird*, in *il Penseroso*, on a similar subject. There are no two airs in our language which contain more new and beautiful passages, or which furnish better opportunities for the display of a fine voice and superior vocal abilities. The numbers in the poetry of *Sweet Echo* are so broken, as to point out no symmetry of air, like the more modern strains of Metastasio: but Sigr. Polidori, by more regular measures, seems to have lost in strength what he has gained in smoothness. We looked in vain for numbers equally flowing and fanciful with those which Milton has put into the mouth of Comus; many of which, however, have been selected for airs in Mr. Dalton's judicious arrangement of that drama for the stage. Sigr. Polidori's imitation of Milton's manner in these charming lines would certainly have been more striking, had his measures been the same: but, by changing Milton's short-numbered eight syllables for the long Italian heroics of eleven, he makes the air move heavily in spite of a softer and smoother dialect.

In the speech when the lady enters, much of the original is preserved: but we missed several singularly beautiful expressions in describing the riotous mirth and vulgar joy of the *swinish multitude*, even in expressing their thanks for the bounty of Providence:

"When for their teeming flocks, and granges full,
In wanton dance they praise the bounteous Pan,
And thank the Gods amiss."

——————' *Allor che a Pane,*
Al benefico Pan, Dio de' pastori,
Inni contando van per le feconde
Lor greggi; e in folli danze e rumor pazzo
Rendon grazie agli Dei per le abondevoli
E numerose biche.'

We know not what ideas these lines may excite in an Italian reader: but, to those who feel the whole force of the original, they will appear comparatively cold.

It was, we confess, an intrepid undertaking in Sigr. P. to publish, *in England*, an Italian translation of one of our most beautiful poems; which, from its original force, and the subsequent changes of language, is now become so difficult to the natives as to want a commentary. Florence is the last place in which *we* should venture to give an English translation of Danté. Yet it is but justice to allow that this version, among many inevitable failures, has passages which

* Comus was first performed at Drury Lane in 1738, and *l'Allegro ed il Penseroso* at the Opera House in 1739.

are at once elegant and happy; and which, if we could afford room, we should with pleasure point out. Dr. B.

Art. 24. *L'Infedeltà punita; i. e.* Inconstancy punished; a Tragical Narrative of slighted Love. By Gætano Polidori. 8vo. pp. 40. Dulau. 1802.

The Italian language is so easy of utterance, and so mellifluous in sound, that it is not only the most favourable to music, but has been emphatically called *musica stessa*, "music itself." If we cannot say that there is much poetry or much imagination in this tragical tale, we must at least allow it the merit of having a moral tendency, and of being told *in belle parole*, in beautiful words, and elegantly printed. D.o

MILITARY *and* NAVAL AFFAIRS.

Art. 25. *An Explanation of the Duties of the several Etats-Majors in the French Army.* Translated from the *Manuel des Adjudans Généraux et des Adjoints employés dans les Etats-Majors Divisionnaires des Armées, Par Paul Thiébault, Adjudant Général dans l'Armée de la Republique Françoise.* Originally printed at Paris, in the Year 1800. 8vo. pp. 150. 4s. Boards. Egerton. 1801.

The duties and relations of the *Etat-Major* of the French, of which we have heard so much, appear to have been very little understood, even in France, before Adjutant General Thiébault published the work of which a translation is here presented to us. It cannot, therefore, fail of being interesting to all who have any curiosity on the subject, and particularly to officers of every class; since, in describing the duties of the Staff, the author is led into instructions of the first consequence to military men. For their information, and to give a specimen of M. Thiébault's judgment, we quote the following observations, taken from the article on guides;

'How many battles might have been gained, which were only lost, (lost, only) because whole corps, having followed routes too long or erroneous, have either arrived too late, or not all, at the points assigned them; how much too might the mischiefs resulting from unsuccessful battles have been diminished, by administering to an army in retreat all those advantages which the country might afford, for covering or securing its movement; and, lastly, how much, even after a victory, the perfect knowlege of localities might add to the means of drawing from a victory the greatest advantage of which it is susceptible.'

Perhaps it is owing to the corps of guides, as a part of the excellence of the French Staff, that most of their victories have been decisive, while those of their enemies have seldom been of any important consequence. A numerous and well organized Staff is certainly invaluable: but we do not call that a Staff, which, as we have too often seen in England, is composed of members who have nothing but fashion and interest to recommend them; and who, instead of being of use, are only an expensive incumbrance. We have the satisfaction, however, of observing that science is now gradually introducing itself in the British Army, and we hope that the present publication will accelerate its progress.

If we may be permitted to turn from these serious reflections, we would afford our readers a smile by observing that *brandy*, on the reports of which, as a stimulative to French courage, such different opinions have been holden, has here *honourable mention;* it being particularly recommended to have, in the rear of the column, 'some carts laden with brandy.'—We were rather surprized, in a work proceeding from a country like republican France, which avows that it owed its first successes to the "magic cry" of "*Guerre aux châteaux, Paix aux cabanes,*" to read of 'war against the Peasants,' P. 119, line 13.—The translator, notwithstanding his modest apprehensions, appears to have done justice to his author.

Art. 26. *The British Commissary.* In Two Parts. Part 1st. A System for the British Commissariat on Foreign Service. Part 2d. An Essay towards ascertaining the Use and Duties of a Commissariat Staff in England. By Haviland Le Mesurier, Esq. 8vo. pp. 211. 6s. Boards. Egerton. 1801.

The officers of the army are generally remarked for their sentiments of honour: but we are concerned to observe that *honor* and *honesty* are not always considered, even by them, as synonymous terms. To speak more plainly, the meaning of the latter word seemed, till lately, almost unknown in the pecuniary transactions of military service; and we have actually heard it used as a term of reproach to a meritorious individual, who left his family in indigent circumstances, because he neglected to plunder the public when it was in his power!—In the West Indies, particularly, the profligate system of fraud and peculation has been carried to a monstrous extent, and with a barefaced effrontery scarcely credible.

The efforts of an insulted government have, however, for some time past been especially directed to that quarter; and we hope that there will be found courage sufficient both to punish and to expose the guilty, with just severity: for there are delinquents still holding up their heads, and living in the different *places*, with every appearance of fashion, whose consciences must tell them that their proper abode would be a cell, associated with perjury and theft. Yet, from the prevalency of these crimes, they are, by some, considered as so pardonable, that, as the late excellent Chief Justice Lord Kenyon, with indignation remarked, "Men of consequence do not hesitate to come into court, and give an honourable character to miscreants convicted of the most flagrant public frauds! As if producing false vouchers, plundering the state, and dishonestly entailing additional taxes on their fellow citizens, were no reproach."

Any attempt to counteract such practices cannot but be well received by all honest men; and Mr. Le Mesurier is intitled to the gratitude of the country, for introducing and publishing a system which, as far as human efforts can succeed, will, if strictly adopted, prevent frauds to any considerable extent.—Besides the great objects of producing regularity and honesty in the military public accounts, the author proposes several plans and regulations, which are worthy the attention of Government, and of every individual concerned in the commissariat.

Art.

Art. 27. *The English Bowman*, or Tracts on Archery: To which is added the Second Part of the Bowman's Glory. By T. Roberts, a Member of the Toxophilite Society. 8vo. pp. 298. 10s. 6d. Boards. Egerton. 1801.

This is a well executed and seemingly complete investigation of archery, chiefly collected from Ascham, Sir John Smith, and other worthies.—Mr. Roberts has also given some excellent comments on those writers; with the addition of several chapters of his own and many valuable notes, which shew his extensive reading, and the very great attention which he has paid to his subject.

The work is divided into four parts; containing, 1st. An Examination into the History, Character, and Military Career of the English Long-bow, &c.

2d. An Account of the Revival of Archery, &c.

3d. An Inquiry and Investigation into such extraordinary Feats, as are said to have been achieved with the English Long-bow, in former Times, &c.

4th. The Art and Practice of Archery, &c.

These particulars are followed by a glossary, and a "Remembrance of the Shows and Shootings, or Appearances of Archers, in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries." The last article must be as curious to antiquaries as it is interesting to toxophilites.

The author dwells with patriotic exultation on the glorious exploits performed by our ancestors with the long-bow, under Henry V. and the Black Prince; while the feats also of Robin Hood and Little John are not forgotten. Of modern archers, Sultan Selim the 2d, the present Grand-Signior, appears to take the lead.—We doubt, however, the correctness of the statement of his Highness shooting an arrow nine hundred and seventy-two yards; (note, p. 100;) especially as Sir Robert Ainslie, before whom this extraordinary shot is said to have been made, and measured, in 1798, had left the Porte sometime before that year.

Art. 28. *The Young Midshipman's Instructor;* (designed as a Companion to Hamilton Moore's Navigation;) with useful Hints to Parents of Sea Youth, and to Captains and School-Masters in the Royal Navy. By David Morrice, late School-Master of his Majesty's Ship Hussar. 8vo. pp. 134. 3s. 6d. Boards. Egerton. 1801.

This little treatise has also appeared as part of a larger work, published by the same author, intitled "The art of teaching or communicating Instruction; examined, methodized, and facilitated;" of which we propose hereafter to take notice. Mr Morrice has here divided his Instructor into short sections under the following heads; Geography and Astronomy, Chronology, Mathematics, the French Language, and on young Persons studying without a Master. They are intended for the younger class of pupils, ('younkers,' as the author, according to marine phraseology, terms them,) and are not ill calculated, as auxiliaries, to throw light on more regular studies.

Art.

POLITICS, &c.

Art. 29. *The Utility of Country Banks considered.* 8vo. 2s. Hatchard.

This ingenious and well written pamphlet is calculated, like Mr. Thornton's more elaborate work, (see p. 30. of this Review,) to augment the respectability of our paper credit; and to prove that the banking system operates to the benefit of the state. Country banks have in this writer a very able advocate; who enlarges on their utility, and endeavours to obviate whatever has been urged to their disadvantage.

Mr. Thornton represents the bank of England as independent of Government: but this gentleman considers it as 'a great engine of state, which in various ways aids the operations of government.' Country banks have not this connection; and, as they divide the confidence, they are regarded as increasing the security of the public. We are told that 'every country bank must be considered as a mine to the kingdom, and bankers as the workers of this mine for the public good;'—that, 'as grand political machines, moving the great levers of the empire, and raising the ponderous powers of war, national banks may be contemplated as national bulwarks, towers of strength, and edifices of defence;'—that 'what the bank of England is to government and merchants of the metropolis, country banks are to traders and gentlemen of landed property in the country;'—and that 'the high price of provisions is totally independent of any system of banking known in this country.'

Perhaps, however, the assertions in this pamphlet are too strong and unqualified, and give to the whole rather the air of interested pleading, than of impartial judgment and matured reflections. The system of banking, though advantageous in many respects to a commercial state, naturally tends to produce an excess of paper circulation, and to draw gold from the pockets of the many into the coffers of the few. Mr. Thornton, indeed, allows that country banks have their disadvantages: but the writer now before us exhibits only the bright side of the subject; for which, we are informed, it is actually in contemplation with the country bankers to present him with a handsome acknowlegement.

Art. 30. *Public Credit in danger; or Frauds on the Revenue Private Wrongs, and Public Ruin:* To which are added, Hints on the best Means to provide for a Peace Establishment, without increasing the National Burthens. By a Member of the Honorable Society of the Inner Temple. 8vo. 2s. Hatchard. 1802.

A forcible appeal is here made to conscience, on the sin of defrauding the revenue. The author, having been an enemy to the late war, withheld his advice to Government during its continuance, because he was fearful of contributing to its prolongation: but now, peace being restored, he gives it without reluctance.—He purposes to institute a magnificent society for the support of public credit and universal integrity; and, to check all frauds, he recommends it to the legislature to put the purchasers of contraband articles on the same footing with receivers of stolen goods. By conscientious payment of taxes, every thing, he thinks, would be accomplished which the

the nation requires for the peace establishment in the way of revenue. 'There is one safe path before us, and *all is well* and *will be well*—Render unto Cæsar the things which are Cæsar's; and the business is done.' Thus the redress of grievances seems to be extremely easy: but, if this desirable event depends on making all people honest, *we* may wish, indeed, but do not expect, to see this happy event. Our childrens' childrens' children, in the golden age, may be more fortunate.

Art. 31. *Serious Reflections on Paper Money in general,* particularly on the alarming Inundation of forged Bank Notes. With Hints for remedying an Evil threatening Destruction to the internal Trade of the Kingdom. In which are included Observations on Mr. Thornton's Enquiry concerning the Paper Credit of Great Britain. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Thurgood.

Serious indeed! Mr. Thornton is not more a preacher of consolation than this writer is a disseminator of alarm. He places the subject of paper money in a point of view in which it was not considered by the former gentleman; and though he prescribes a mode of cure, it is not till he has roused us to a contemplation of the magnitude of the evil. Being ourselves no advocates for the doctrine of unbounded confidence in any banking depository, and foreseeing the mischiefs which may probably arise from an unlimited emission of notes, unchecked by their convertibility into cash at the will of the holder, we are more disposed to coincide in, than to resist, the views of this writer; yet we question the policy of representing the fabrication of forged notes as an easy practice, and of alarming the nation with the idea of an inundation of these forgeries. No doubt they are numerous, but we trust that they do not amount to an *inundation*; and we hope that the bank will avail itself of the sensible remarks which are here suggested, to check, if not to annihilate, this wicked practice.

Commencing with a glance at the origin of the banking system in Europe, the author proceeds to notice Law's Missisippi scheme in France and our South Sea Bubble; whence he passes to a consideration of the Bank of England, which he accuses of having failed in its contract with the public, by not paying in cash on demand; and he remarks that 'paper, as money, when the real money has been withdrawn, of which, by common consent, that paper was intended to be an emblem, will ever be liable to fall into decay.' Of the funding and taxing system, he says that 'it is an invention which must ever be deprecated by the philosophic and benevolent mind.' In defiance of Mr. Thornton's laboured vindication of paper credit, this writer decides in favour of the precious metals; lamenting that so much of them should have been sent out of the country, since nothing but an increased foreign commerce, with a balance of trade in our favour, can restore to us the quantity which has been sent away. His observations on Mr. Thornton's inquiry are concise: but he promises to comment on it more at large in future.

Art. 32. *A Letter addressed to the Hon. Charles James Fox,* in consequence of a Publication, intitled "A Sketch of the Character of

of the Most Noble Francis Duke of Bedford." 8vo. 1s. Rivingtons.

The author of this letter disapproves alike of the panegyrist and of the panegyrised. Mr. Fox's eulogy is condemned because it did not, like a funeral sermon, exhibit the late Duke of Bedford's religious sentiments; and the example of the deceased is reprobated because he did not display—a deathbed repentance. The fortitude of the noble Duke in his last moments, which his Friend so highly extolled, is here represented as constituting the most shocking part of what this writer terms 'this truly deplorable scene'. The silence observed by Mr. Fox on the subject of religion, and the late Duke's avowed political principles, here excite such animadversions as no liberal and candid mind will honour with its approbation.

Moy.

EDUCATION.

Art. 33. *Chronological Tablets:* exhibiting every remarkable Occurrence from the Creation of the World, with characteristic Traits of each Event; chiefly abridged from the French of the Abbot Lenglet du Fresnoy; arranged alphabetically, and augmented from authentic sources to the present Time, particularly as regards British history: comprehending brief Accounts of Inventions and Discoveries in every Department of Science, and Biogracal Sketches of three thousand illustrious or notable Persons. 12mo. pp. 256. Vernor and Hood. 1801.

This little book is divided into five tables, under the following titles; General Events, Battles, Inventions, Discovery of Countries, Establishments, &c. &c.—Sacred Writers and Writings; Sects, Religious and Religio-military Institutions, Orders, &c.—Buildings, Hospitals, and Public Offices.—Persons worthy of Note, either for their Virtues or their Vices, particularly mental or bodily Qualifications, Rank, &c. —and Regal Tables'—to all which is added, 'Population of Europe, &c. together with Occurrences while this work was at press.'—The editor speaks with great satisfaction concerning his compilation, which, we are told, he 'does not obtrude on the public without a thorough conviction of its utility and correctness; and he farther remarks, 'It is believed, no book near the same size and price, contains a more abundant fund of information and enterainment than this now offered; for, by the œconomy of printing, a page of duodecimo is introduced into a compass apparently not more than half its bulk, in such a way as to comprize *multum in parvo*.'

We give the editor credit for industry, and for attention in his endeavours to render the work more complete; we are pleased also with the division of his subjects, and we apprehend that in its present state it may prove both acceptable and useful: but we cannot flatter him so far as to say that it is not free from defects, and is not capable of considerable improvement. No part of science requires greater exactness and deliberation, or admits of more diffidence, than this of chronology. Doubtful authorities and confident assertions should therefore be avoided, which, perhaps, is not always sufficiently done in this performance: deception is easy on this point, and prejudice misleads.—Whether Freemasonry was taught (p. 56.) in England by Pythagoras, about 550 years before

before Christ, we leave to be determined by those who choose to investigate the subject.—Of Highways, it is said, (p. 63.) 'the first law for their reparation passed, 1525; that which erected turnpikes, 1773.' Of the latter, to which we are referred, we read, p. 139, 'Turnpikes, for exacting tolls, first erected here, 1350; first law concerning them, 1663; tax levied on persons passing through them, 1782.'—Here is probably an error of the press, or certainly other mistakes.—In table iv. we observe, 'Abbot, Archbishop of Canterbury, who *killed his park-keeper* in 1621, died Aug. 3, 1633, aged 71;' it ought surely to have been said, *by accident*.—'Merlin, the *prophet*, (p. 217) lived in 477.' Ought we not to read, *reputed* prophet?—'Annet, Peter, pilloried and persecuted for his *moral* writings, died 1679, aged 75.' It seems very hard that a man should suffer in this manner for his *morality*. Here again appears an error of the press.—Some names, such as Joseph Addison, Esq. need, perhaps, no other distinction than that of the time of birth and death; so justly are they celebrated and truly esteemed: but, when we observe, 'Mitchel Joseph, born 1684, died 1738:' or 'Shirley, James, born 1594, died 1666,' general readers will, probably, be neither edified nor informed.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 34. *Cary's New Itinerary;* or, an accurate Delineation of the Great Roads, both direct and cross, throughout England and Wales; with many of the principal Roads in Scotland; from an actual Admeasurement made by Command of his Majesty's Post Master General, for official Purposes. By John Cary, Surveyor of the Roads to the General Post Office. To which are added the Names of the Inns which supply Post Horses and Carriages; Noblemen's and Gentlemen's Seats; a List of the Packet Boats, &c. &c. The 2d Edition, with Improvements. 8vo. 10s. 6d. with the Maps coloured. Cary. 1802.

We recommended the first edition of this work in our 27th vol. N. S. p. 110, and the present has an increased claim to patronage on account of various additions and improvements; some of which we shall mention.—To the former survey of 9000 miles, an actual measurement of 1000 more is now given.—At the conclusion of each route (of any material length) a *return route* is added, to shew the distance from B to A, as well as from A to B, without the trouble of subtracting: which, as it stood formerly, must have been always rather inconvenient, and to some people embarrassing.—Besides the usual distinction of market-towns, all places having a post-office are now distinguished by a characteristic mark.—A new map of the *Cross* Roads, separate from the *Direct* Roads; and the former are also marked on the general map, exhibiting their connection with the latter.

The new mode adopted by Mr. Cary in his 1st edition, of reckoning all distances from the *General Post Office*, has been abandoned; and they are now computed from the customary standards, in order that they may correspond as nearly as possible with the mile-stones on the roads.

With much candor, and a laudable desire of improvement, Mr. Cary solicits the corrections of all travellers who may use his book; particularly

particularly in the article of the country seats of noblemen, &c. which must be subject to constant variations. The description of cross roads, also, must no doubt be susceptible of emendations. *One* omission accidentally struck us, viz. the cross road from Cheltenham to Stow, and thence to Chipping Norton.

An account of Mr. Cary's successful action against a piracy of his work was given in our last vol. p. 46. He has not omitted to record it in the present volume, and thus repels a prior charge of plagiarism brought against *him*.

G. 2.

Art. 35. *A Critical Inquiry into the Moral Writings of Dr. Samuel Johnson.* In which the Tendency of certain Passages in *the Rambler*, and other Publications of that celebrated Writer, is impartially considered. To which is added, A Dialogue *in the Shades*, between Johnson and Boswell. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Cobbett and Morgan.

We entirely agree with this ingenious Critic in his unfavourable opinion of many sentiments and doctrines contained in the Essays of Dr. Johnson, which are here examined; and which are considered as having by no means a tendency to promote the comfort and happiness of mankind. He appreciates more highly, however, the merit of the Doctor's poetical performances; of his religious papers, also, (for the most part,) he is a warm admirer; and he does ample justice to the piety and good intentions of that great writer.

This is a well-written and even an entertaining performance. A considerable, if not the principal, part of it first appeared in the columns of a newspaper. The humorous *Dialogue in the Shades*, given in the *Appendix*, bears very hard on poor *Bozzi*: who is here made to acknowlege that he owed his untimely death to drinking too much *mahogany!*—alias *gin and treacle*.

CORRESPONDENCE.

We are indebted to a noble Correspondent in Ireland, for the correction of an inadvertency in our Review for February last, p. 197, *note*: where Swift's character of Thomas *Earl* of Wharton was proposed to be compared with Pope's similar delineation, forgetting that the portrait drawn by the latter was that of Philip *Duke* of Wharton, son of the Earl: with which distinction, the comparison may still be made.—Our best acknowlegements are due to the Earl of G. for the very obliging expression contained in his letter: in return for which, we can only hope that he may long enjoy all the pleasures which literature can afford, and to which our humble efforts may contribute.

By a letter from Dr. Hutton of Woolwich, we learn with regret that our account of his Treatise on Bridges (See Rev. for March last, p. 324.) has given him pain, which it was by no means our intention to inflict; and we assure the Doctor that he has attached a meaning to our remarks which we wholly disavow.—The observations respecting *speculative men* were not designed to apply personally to Dr. H. as individual censure; and the force of the objection was in a great

great measure diminished by the concluding remark in that paragraph. Indeed, it would be *felo de se*, in a body of men like Reviewers, to join in indiscriminate and vehement declamation against persons of a speculative turn.—With regard to our remark on the application or non-application of Dr. H.'s principles to the proposed Iron Bridge over the Thames, we stated it with doubt, and merely as our opinion; the reasons for which will farther appear in our account of Mr. Atwood's Dissertation on Arches, in p. 41, &c. of this Review —By observing that certain of Dr. H.'s propositions were the same with those of Emerson, we had no intention to convey any imputation of plagiarism, but merely thus to impart an idea of them to mathematical readers, who must be well acquainted with Emerson's work.—Even the delay of our account of the Doctor's tract is in his opinion a mark of hostility: but surely Dr. Hutton must be aware that, among the numbers of publications which issue from the press, it must be and is the lot of a great many to wait for notice in our Review much longer than his work was retarded; and in the present case the MS. was accidentally mislaid.

To conclude; we cannot admit the propriety of viewing the article in question in the light in which Dr. Hutton has placed it, and we positively disclaim all those motives of personal ill-will to which he has referred it.

R.W.

INTELLECTUAL PHYSICS.

A volume in 4to. with this title was printed in the year 1794, and distributed within a limited circle. A copy of it was put into our hands, and accordingly we gave an account of it in Vol. xx. of our New Series, p. 292. It has lately been again circulated, and, properly speaking, has now been first *published*; the author hoping that, 'under the present circumstances of the world, and at the present crisis, some such induction up to first principles as this Essay pursues, some such truths as this induction elicits,' may lead to some good use. We shall be happy if the event should correspond with the laudable views of this respectable writer; who, we now learn from the prefixed advertisement, is Governor Pownall.

The packet from Wells is received, but we do not see what use we can make of its contents.

In our account of Dr. White's edition of Abdollatiph, Rev. April, p. 341. l. 9. from the bottom, the word *printed* was incautiously substituted for *published*.—Professor Paulus did not print Dr. White's former edition of Abdollatiph, but merely *published* the copies of it which the Doctor had presented to him, and *printed* only an explanatory preface.

P. 429. l. 29. for 'war to peace,' r. *peace to war*.—P. 446. l. 8. fr. bott. for '*Noctura*,' r. *Nocitura*.

☞ The APPENDIX to VOL. XXXVII. of the M. R. is published with this Number, and contains various articles of FOREIGN LITERATURE, with the Title and Index to the Volume, as usual.

Errors, p. 24, 83, 87, 88, 105. 111.